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ABSTRACT

This handbook on women workers, revised from the 1975 edition, provides current data related to worklife experiences of women and their economic and legal status, especially during the last half of the 1970s. In addition, historical data provide a perspective on trends in the labor force, experiences of women, and the effects of legislation on women's employment. The handbook offers a review of the eight-year period, characterizing the time as a "time of change." The report documents, through statistical data and accounts of legal developments, changes in the role of women in the labor force and thus in the economy of the United States. It reflects results of studies by government and non-government sources. The study is organized in two parts: chapters in Part 1 focus on women's labor market activity, the occupations and industries in which they are employed, their income and earnings, educational attainment, and various kinds of job training; chapters in Part 2 identify federal and state laws that affect women's employment. A summary of study highlights is included in this document. (KC)

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Time of Change:
1983 Handbook on Women Workers

U.S. Department of Labor
Raymond J. Donovan, Secretary

Women's Bureau
Lenora Cole Alexander, Director
1983

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FOREWORD

Our last handbook on women workers was published in 1975. The current edition provides continuity of much of that data as they relate to worklife experiences of women and their economic and legal status, especially during the last half of the 70's. In addition, historical data provide a perspective on trends in the labor force experiences of women and the effects of legislation on women's employment.

A handbook such as this necessarily includes information that is retrospective as well as prospective. In order to indicate the status and experiences of a large and diverse female labor force, a periodic review is required. This handbook offers such a review, characterizing the period of development as a "time of change."

Recent changes in the U.S. labor force include the addition of more than a million women each year. In 1972, 33.5 million women were in the labor force; in 1982 there were 47.7 million. Women accounted for two-thirds of the total labor force growth during that period. Other changes occurred in the occupational distribution of women. Despite continued concentration in traditional occupations, they made notable gains in nontraditional professions, management positions, and the skilled trades. The tempo of this labor market activity is reflected in this handbook.

Some of the issues addressed during the time of change—and some which remain to be addressed—include full access to employment opportunities without discrimination by gender; training for jobs developing in new industries and traditional occupations affected by technological change; equity in pay and other benefits; child care and family support needs; tensions created by role conflicts of employees who are also home care providers; elimination of sexual harassment; and increased opportunities for on-the-job training and advancement.

Within these and similar areas of concern are problems related to specific subgroups of women whose work-related experiences are especially difficult. One such group consists of the large proportion of the poor who are women. Many poor women are maintaining families alone. Their economic requirements are great but their job options few. Another group is comprised of older women entering or reentering the labor force with a need for skills training and perhaps counseling. Teenage women, just out of school, face a different dilemma. Unarmed with work experience or references, they confront a highly competitive job market.

It is encouraging to observe that various institutions and mechanisms in our society—both private and public—are working to remove barriers to women's full participation in the Nation's worklife. While problems remain, women's earnings already have influenced the marketing of many consumer products and services, banking, investment, and real estate, as well as credit practices. Because women often perform more than one major role in society, they have influenced management's views on flexible work hours, job sharing, and other creative approaches to efficient use of time on the job.

Time of Change documents, through statistical data and accounts of legal developments, changes in the role of women in the labor force and thus in the Nation's economy. It reflects results of studies by government and nongovernment sources. Chapters in Part 1 focus on women's labor market activity, the occupations and industries in which they are employed, their income and earnings, educational attainment, and various kinds of job training. The chapters in Part 2 identify Federal and State laws affecting women's employment.

As we progress into the 80's, prospects are that women will continue to move into high paying and nontraditional occupations. Their presence in the workplace, which has already exerted an influence on our Nation's economy, will be felt to a greater degree. *Time of Change* illustrates that trend.

Lenora Cole Alexander
Director, Women's Bureau

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Women's Bureau acknowledges with sincere thanks the assistance received in the preparation of this handbook. A reference document of this scope could not have been developed without the expertise, advice, and constructive comments of many persons in agencies across the Federal Government. We recognize particularly the generous assistance of program staff in virtually all of the agencies in the Department of Labor. In the Bureau of Labor Statistics, we especially thank economists Elizabeth Waldman, Howard Hayghe, and Gloria P. Green for their assistance on the chapters in Part 1 of this handbook. We also give special thanks to those persons who contributed significantly by reviewing the chapters in Part 2.

We gratefully acknowledge the contributions of the Departments of Commerce (especially the Bureau of the Census), Defense, and Education; the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; Office of Personnel Management; and the National Institutes of Health and the Social Security Administration, both in the Department of Health and Human Services. Other agencies assisting in this project were the National Center for Education Statistics, Minimum Wage Study Commission, National Commission on Employment Policy, National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, and the Women's Educational Equity Act Program.

Mary Patricia Marshall was the editor for a large portion of the handbook. The final stages of editing and other areas of preparation were completed by Ella Green, Chief, Division of Information and Publications, assisted by Laura Danley, Ruth Robinson, and Doris Baldwin. Part 1 of the handbook was prepared under the general supervision of Harriett Harper, Chief, Division of Statistical and Economic Analysis, with the assistance of labor economists Roberta McKay, Evelyn Farber, and Edward Kelly, and economics assistant Velma Gilyard. Part 2 was prepared under the general supervision of Ruth Shinn, Chief, Division of Legislative Analysis, who was assisted by social science advisors John Galvin, Jane Walstedt, Jane Newman, and Ethel Mendelsohn, and by Ruth Robinson, of the Division of Information and Publications.

The clerical support staff in the Bureau were a significant part of the team that worked on the handbook. Their role was vital to the accomplishment of the overall task of producing *Time of Change*.

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Part 1

Women as Workers

HIGHLIGHTS

LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT

Number (1982 annual averages)

Nearly 48 million women were in the labor force; this was 53 percent of all women 16 years of age and over.

Women accounted for 43 percent of the civilian labor force.

About 6.7 million women of minority races were in the labor force, or 54 percent of all minority race women in the population.

Age (1982 annual averages)

About three-fifths of the women 18 to 64 years of age were in the labor force—63 percent.

The highest labor force participation rate among women was for those 20 to 24 years old—70 percent.

Marital Status (March 1982)

Married women (husband present) accounted for about 55 percent of all women workers. Of all married women (husband present), 51 percent were in the labor force.

Women Maintaining Families (March 1982)

Three-fifths (61 percent) of the 9.7 million women maintaining families were in the labor force. About 1 out of 5 women workers maintained families.

Working Mothers and Their Children (March 1982)

About 18.7 million mothers with children under 18 years of age were in the labor force, 7.4 million of whom had children under 6 years.

The labor force participation rate of mothers (59 percent) was higher than that for all women.

Two-thirds of the mothers of children 6 to 17 years of age (none under 6) were in the labor force—66 percent; 50 percent of the mothers of children under 6 were workers.

Children of working mothers numbered 32.0 million. Of these children, 23.5 million were 6 to 17 years of age and 8.5 million were under the age of 6. Among the children of working mothers, 6.9 million had mothers who maintained families; 1.5 million of these children were under the age of 6.

Unemployment (1982 annual averages)

Unemployed women numbered about 4.5 million and accounted for 42 percent of all unemployed persons.

The unemployment rate of women was 9.4 percent, compared with 9.9 percent for men.

The unemployment rate for all young women 16 to 19 years of age was 21.9 percent; for minority women 16 to 19, it was 43.8 percent. Women (16 and over) of minority races were unemployed at a rate of 16.4 percent, compared with 8.3 percent for white women.

In March 1982, more than half a million (654,000) unemployed women maintained families. Their rate of unemployment was 9.9 percent, compared with 6.2 percent for men maintaining families.

Employment Patterns (March 1982)

More than 70 percent of women who worked during 1982 had full-time jobs and worked an average of 40 hours a week.

About 1 out of 3 women worked part time in 1982; three-fourths did so by choice.

Occupations (1982)

Over 34 percent of all employed women were in clerical jobs. They included almost 5 million secretaries, stenographers, and typists.

Nearly 20 percent were service workers, over 2 percent were private household workers and the remainder were service workers outside the home.

Nearly 18 percent, or 7.6 million women, were professional and technical workers. They included more than 2 million each of health workers and elementary and secondary school teachers.

About 9 percent were operatives chiefly in factories.

Earnings in 1981

The earnings differential between women and men did not close during the 1970's.

The median earnings for all women were $7,222 in 1981, 48 percent of the $15,061 earnings of men. Women employed the year round and full time had median earnings of $12,001, or 59 percent of the $20,260 received by men. In 1956 fully employed women's earnings were 63 percent of men's earnings; in 1970 they were 59 percent.

In 1981 the median wage or salary income of minority race women who worked year round full time was $11,499, or 94 percent of the $12,287 income of white women. In 1969 the median income of minority race women was about 82 percent of that of white women.

Among all working-wife families, the contribution of wives' earnings was more than one-fourth of family income. When the wife was a year-round full-time worker, her contribution was nearly two-fifths—38 percent.

Among the 5.9 million families maintained by women workers, 23 percent had 1981 incomes below the poverty level; for the 1.5 million black families maintained by women workers, the corresponding figure was 36 percent.

Education in 1981

School and College Enrollment

About 28.6 million girls and women 3 to 34 years of age were attending school in the fall of 1981.

The 5.4 million women (under age 35) enrolled in college were about 50 percent of all college students (under age 35).

The number of black women in college in October 1981 (628,000) was more than double the number in October 1970 (269,000).

Educational Attainment

In March 1982 more than four-fifths of all women workers were high school graduates or above. Almost 2 out of 5 women in the labor force had completed 1 or more years of college, and 1 out of 6 was a college graduate.

A much higher proportion of women workers 20 to 34 years of age were high school graduates or above (94 percent) than were women workers 35 years and over (78 percent).

Chapter I
THE LABOR MARKET ACTIVITY OF WOMEN

A unique period of substantial change in the role of women in our Nation began with the decade of the 1970's—a period whose momentum carried into the 1980's. The extraordinary increase in women's labor force activity continued unabated until late 1979 when the Nation's economy began to slow down. More than 12.6 million more women were in the labor force in 1979 than in 1970. These women accounted for close to 60 percent of the labor force expansion of more than 22 million workers over the decade.

A number of factors contributed to the increased labor force participation of women during the 1970's. These include the trend toward later marriages and smaller numbers of children in families, and a change in the pattern of spacing children. The dramatic increase in marital disruption accompanied an unprecedented rise in the number of women who have the sole responsibility for the economic support and welfare of their families and the increase in the life expectancy of women. Other major factors are the continued rapid growth of white-collar jobs in which the majority of women are employed, and the increase in part-time and part-year employment opportunities. These factors have been accompanied by a changing attitude toward careers for women outside the home. The most striking change in the labor market activity over the decade was the entry of young married women with children, particularly women of ages 25 to 34 years ("baby boom" population group), into the labor force.[1] This fact underlines, and was the impetus for, the unprecedented growth in the women's segment of the labor force during the 1970's.

Subsequently, the rise in working mothers and single parent families increased the need for child care services and skill training programs directed at the needs of women.

In addition to the rise in female single parents with young children, marital disruptions found many older women, who had been homemakers for many years, faced with the prospect of "making a living" in the paid labor market.

Despite a decade of rapid change which resulted in more women employed as doctors, lawyers, engineers, bus and truck drivers, construction workers, and members of the Armed Forces, more than half of all working-age women remain concentrated in the so-called "typical women's occupations" (see chapter II).

At the same time, old problems continued to need attention. Young women, particularly minority teenage women, continue to have the most persistent labor market difficulties. Moreover, minority women, who have historically participated in labor force activities, continue to be less well off than the general population, despite improvements in their health, education, and welfare. Although earnings of black and white women now approach parity, the earnings of both population groups lag behind those of men and lag substantially behind those of white men. As a result, the black family income continues to be below that of the general population group.

This chapter examines changes in the labor market experience of women, particularly over the decade of the 1970's, focusing on the most recent data available—1980 or 1981.[2]

Employment Status of Women

The labor force status of the population refers to the classification of women and men 16 years and older—the working-age population—according to their major activity. They are either in the labor force (employed or unemployed) or out of the labor force—neither working for pay nor looking for paid work but keeping house, retired, going to school, unable to work, etc. The civilian

[1] Children born during the post-World War II era, generally accepted as from about 1944–1964; the peak year was 1957.

[2] Unless otherwise stated, data for this chapter are derived from the Current Population Survey (CPS) and its monthly supplement. The CPS is a scientifically selected sample of about 65,000 households, designed to represent the civilian noninstitutional population 16 years of age and over. The survey is conducted monthly by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which analyzes and publishes the data monthly in *Employment and Earnings*, the *Monthly Labor Review*, and in other periodic BLS publications and news releases.

population and labor force excludes people either in institutions or in military service.

The civilian population advanced sharply over the decade, reaching more than 170 million in 1981 or 24 percent more than in 1970 (see table I-1). The civilian labor force, however, increased at a faster pace than the population, reaching 109 million in 1981, up 26 million or nearly 32 percent from 1970. As a result, the overall civilian labor force participation rate rose from 61 to 64 percent of the population.

Table I-1

Employment status of women and men, annual averages, 1981

Employment status	1981 (numbers in thousands)
Women, 16 years and over	
Total noninstitutional population	89,796
Armed Forces	178
Civilian noninstitutional population	89,618
Civilian labor force	46,696
Participation rate	52.1
Employed	43,000
Employment-population ratio[1]	48.0
Unemployed	3,696
Unemployment rate	7.9
Total not in labor force	42,922
Do not want a job now	39,003
Want a job now	3,919
Reason not looking:	
School attendance	778
Ill health, disability	409
Home responsibilities	1,280
Think cannot get job	704
Other reasons	748
Men, 16 years and over	
Total noninstitutional population	82,476
Armed Forces	1,965
Civilian noninstitutional population	80,511
Civilian labor force	61,974
Participation rate	77.0
Employed	57,397
Employment-population ratio[1]	69.6
Unemployed	4,577
Unemployment rate	7.4
Total not in labor force	18,537
Do not want a job now	16,620
Want a job now	1,916
Reason not looking:	
School attendance	780
Ill health, disability	360
Think cannot get job	399
Other reasons[1]	377

[1] Includes a small number of persons not looking for work because of home responsibilities.

Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Women accounted for more than half of both the gain in the working-age population and in the civilian labor force. Their participation rate rose considerably—from 43 percent in 1970 to 52 percent in 1981, compared with the gradual long-term decline in labor force activity among men—81 to 78 percent over the period.

Although men remain more likely to be in the labor force than women, the expansion of the female labor force between 1970 and 1981 was greater than that of their male counterpart. More than half of all working-age women in the population in 1981—47 million—were in the labor force, up 47 percent from the 32 million in 1970. In contrast, nearly 8 out of 10 men were in the work force in 1981, but their labor force gains from 11 years earlier—51 to 62 million—reflected only a 22-percent increase.

An average of well over a million women a year were added to the work force during the 1970's, except for the 1970–71 period. A record number of nearly 2 million women entered or reentered the labor force in 1978 alone. Women, who accounted for over 38 percent of the civilian labor force in 1970, accounted for more than 43 percent of the labor force by 1981.

Most of the record gains in women's labor force activities in the 1970's occurred among younger women, particularly those 25 to 34 years. By the late 1960's, the large cohort of post-World War II children were of working age and began entering the labor force. They entered during a period of rapid economic growth and social change.

Why did so many of these women work? Labor economists Janet Norwood and Elizabeth Waldman found that a significant group of women worked because they or their families were dependent on their earnings.[3] In addition, they reported that some analysts pointed to the women's liberation movement, which took hold in the 1960's and continued through the decade of the 1970's, as having increased women's awareness of opportunities in the world of work. Others maintain that the new labor force role of women may itself have stimulated a strong reaction to existing or perceived inequities.

Discussion of these and many other issues took place in Houston in 1977 at the first national women's conference in the U.S. in over 100 years.[4] (The first Women's Rights Convention was held in Seneca Falls, New York, July 19–20, 1848, to discuss "the social, civil, and religious conditions and rights of women.") Other dialogues

[3] *Women in the Labor Force: Some New Data Series*, Janet L. Norwood and Elizabeth Waldman, Report 575, 1979, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[4] *The Spirit of Houston*, Report of the First National Women's Conference, National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year, March 1978.

continue. International conferences also have focused on women's issues, particularly conferences held in 1980 by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the United Nations.

Long-Term Trends in Labor Force Participation

Prior to World War II there had been a gradual change in the size and composition of the female work force. During the first 40 years of this century, the labor force participation rate of women rose from about 19 percent to just over 25 percent.[5] Before the war most women in the labor force were most likely to be either single, middle-class, white-collar workers who held their jobs until they married, or they were poor, either single or married, women working in factories or in domestic service. After World War II, the labor force entrants were increasingly married, middle-class women.

The series of technological and business innovations that began early in the century provided less costly substitutes for the manual work performed by women in the home. There also were important changes in the child-related aspects of a woman's life. For example, in 1910 married women 45 to 59 years old had borne an average of five children; by 1950 the number of children born had declined about half that figure, and has continued to edge down since then. Notable among the factors contributing to this decrease was the decline in infant and child mortality, which meant that fewer births were needed to achieve a desired family size. Although limited in the early years, the spread of birth control information also had an important impact, particularly since the early 1960's. The span of years during which women could work continuously was lengthened by declines in their own mortality combined with the completion of the child bearing period at an earlier age. Greater urbanization added to the pull from home to the marketplace.

The full impact that these factors might have had on the labor force activity of women was dampened in the 1930's by the depressed economic conditions. However, the coming of World War II, with its greatly expanded need for labor, provided the impetus for rapid growth in the labor force of women. Following the war, continued prosperity and the swift growth in the service sector of the economy meant a substantial increase in women's employment. The year 1956 marked the switch from a predominantly blue-collar to a white-collar economy in which there were greater opportunities for women.

The unprecendented increase of women moving into the labor force characterized the late 1960's and all of the 1970's. The number of women in the labor force moved from 31.5 million in 1970 to 46.7 million in 1981. The accompanying rise in the labor force participation rate was from 43 percent in 1970 to more than 52 percent in 1981 (see table I-2). It should be noted that the labor force participation rate—the percentage of the civilian population that is employed and unemployed—provides the clearest picture of labor force movements for specific population groups; for example, women. These rates account for changes in population levels as well as absolute labor force changes.[6]

Sex—During the past quarter century, changes in social attitudes, lifestyles, marital and family patterns, and employment-retirement experiences have contributed to the sharp increase in the labor force participation rates for women, and a much slower but, nonetheless, steady decline for men (see table I-3). Despite the overall decline in the labor force participation rate of men, it remains substantially above that for women (see chart I-1). However, the gap has narrowed considerably.

Since the mid-1960's, the greatest labor force increases for women have occurred among those under age 45.[7] Currently, more than two-thirds of the women in their twenties, and slightly less—about 65 percent— of those in their thirties and forties, are in the labor force. Among women over 55, there were small declines in the 1970's (from a peak of 25 percent in 1970) indicating that some women may have worked long enough to choose retirement. In recent years, their labor force participation rate has fluctuated around 23 percent, posting 22.7 percent in 1981.

The biggest changes among men have occurred in the older age groups, and have been attributed primarily to earlier retirement. For example, more than two-fifths of men over age 65 were in the labor force in 1950, compared with one-fifth in 1981. Among men 55 to 64 years of age, that rate dropped from 87 to 72 percent over the 1950–1980 period.

Age—Since 1950 the proportion of women engaged in or seeking paid employment climbed from about one-third to more than one-half. While the overall surge has been generally steady, noticeable differences occurred in the timing for different age groups (see chart I-1). Prior to World War II the highest rates of female participation were among the young, because most women left the paid labor force upon marriage. In the postwar era the pattern changed. There was a sizable jump in the participation of women ages 45 to 59, the group which had largely completed the time-consuming portion of their childbearing responsibilities. There were also rapid increases in their employment in those occupations and

[5] *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970*, Bicentennial Edition, Part I, Table Series D 11-25, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

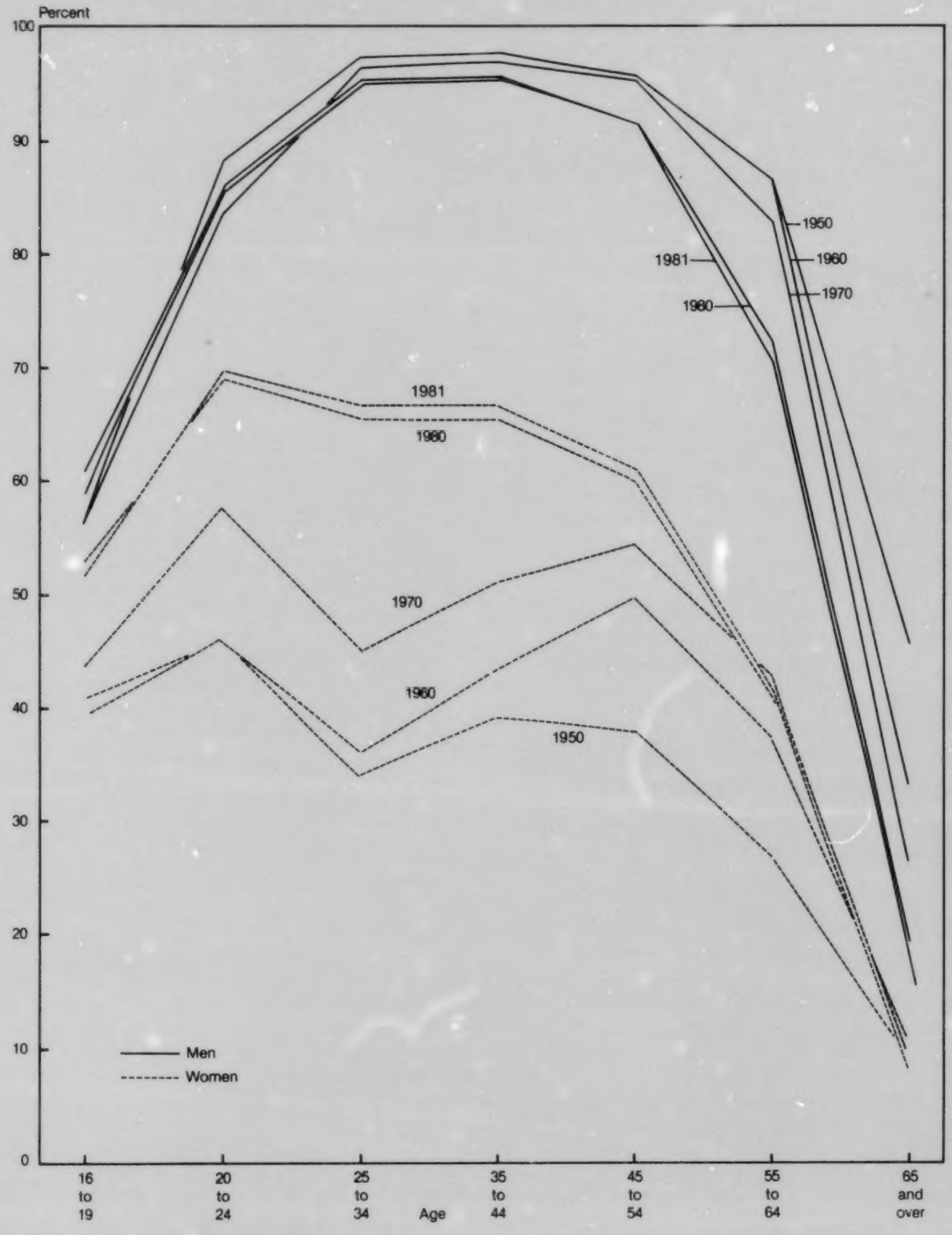
[6] *"Employment and Unemployment During 1979: An Analysis,"* Carol Boyd Leon and Philip L. Rones, *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1980, p. 9., U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[7] "Labor Force Trends: A Synthesis and Analysis," Robert W. Bednarzik and Deborah P. Klein, *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1977, pp. 3-12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Also see, "Recent Trends in Labor Force Participation Rates: A Chartbook," Report 609, September 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Chart I-1.

The gap between the participation rates of women and men is still considerable, despite strong labor force gains of women.

Civilian labor force participation rates, by sex and age, annual averages, selected years, 1950–81.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-2

Employment status of the noninstitutional population 16 years and over, by sex, 1947-81.

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Total noninstitutional population	Total labor force		Civilian labor force						Not in labor force
					Employed			Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of population	Total	Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	
Females										
1947	52,450	16,683	31.8	16,664	16,045	1,248'	14,797	619	3.7	35,767
1948	53,088	17,351	32.7	17,335	16,617	1,271	15,346	717	4.1	35,737
1949	53,689	17,806	33.2	17,788	16,723	1,315	15,409	1,065	6.0	35,883
1950	54,293	18,412	33.9	18,389	17,340	1,159	16,181	1,049	5.7	35,881
1951	54,933	19,054	34.7	19,016	18,181	1,193	16,988	834	4.4	35,879
1952	55,575	19,314	34.8	19,269	18,568	1,111	17,458	698	3.6	36,261
1953'	56,353	19,429	34.5	19,382	18,749	1,006	17,743	632	3.3	36,924
1954	56,965	19,718	34.6	19,678	18,490	1,006	17,486	1,188	6.0	37,247
1955	57,610	20,584	35.7	20,548	19,551	1,184	18,366	998	4.9	37,026
1956	58,264	21,495	36.9	21,461	20,419	1,244	19,175	1,039	4.8	36,769
1957	58,983	21,765	36.9	21,732	20,714	1,123	19,591	1,018	4.7	37,218
1958	59,723	22,149	37.1	22,118	20,613	990	19,623	1,504	6.8	37,574
1959	60,569	22,516	37.2	22,483	21,164	1,033	20,131	1,320	5.9	38,053
1960'	61,615	23,272	37.8	23,240	21,874	986	20,887	1,366	5.9	38,343
1961	62,517	23,838	38.1	23,806	22,090	902	21,187	1,717	7.2	38,679
1962'	63,355	24,047	38.0	24,014	22,525	875	21,651	1,488	6.2	39,308
1963	64,527	24,736	38.3	24,704	23,105	878	22,227	1,598	6.5	39,791
1964	65,668	25,443	38.7	25,412	23,831	832	23,000	1,581	6.2	40,225
1965	66,763	26,232	39.3	26,200	24,748	814	23,934	1,452	5.5	40,531
1966	67,829	27,333	40.3	27,299	25,976	736	25,240	1,324	4.8	40,496
1967	69,003	28,395	41.2	28,360	26,893	680	26,212	1,468	5.2	40,608
1968	70,217	29,242	41.6	29,204	27,807	660	27,147	1,397	4.8	40,976
1969	71,476	30,551	42.7	30,513	29,084	643	28,441	1,429	4.7	40,924
1970	72,822	31,583	43.4	31,543	29,688	601	29,087	1,855	5.9	41,239
1971	74,315	32,243	43.4	32,202	29,976	599	29,377	2,227	6.9	42,072
1972'	76,333	33,522	43.9	33,479	31,257	635	30,622	2,222	6.6	42,811
1973'	77,855	34,855	44.8	34,804	32,715	622	32,093	2,089	6.0	43,000
1974	79,379	36,278	45.7	36,211	33,769	596	33,173	2,441	6.7	43,101
1975	80,949	37,565	46.4	37,475	33,989	584	33,404	3,486	9.3	43,386
1976	82,496	39,089	47.4	38,983	35,615	588	35,027	3,369	8.6	43,406
1977	83,955	40,728	48.5	40,613	37,289	612	36,677	3,324	8.2	43,227
1978'	85,459	42,755	50.0	42,631	39,569	669	38,900	3,061	7.2	42,703
1979	86,983	44,375	51.0	44,235	41,217	661	40,556	3,018	6.8	42,608
1980	88,507	45,646	51.6	45,487	42,117	656	41,461	3,370	7.4	42,861
1981	89,796	46,873	52.2	46,696	43,000	667	42,333	3,696	7.9	42,922
Males										
1947	50,968	44,258	86.8	42,686	40,995	6,643	34,352	1,692	4.0	6,710
1948	51,439	44,729	87.0	43,286	41,725	6,358	35,367	1,559	3.6	6,710
1949	51,922	45,097	86.9	43,498	40,925	6,343	34,583	2,572	5.9	6,825
1950	52,352	45,446	86.8	43,819	41,578	6,002	35,576	2,239	5.1	6,906
1951	52,788	46,063	87.3	43,001	41,780	5,534	36,246	1,221	2.8	6,725
1952	53,248	46,416	87.2	42,869	41,682	5,390	36,293	1,185	2.8	6,832
1953'	54,248	47,131	86.9	43,633	42,430	5,253	37,177	1,202	2.8	7,117
1954	54,766	47,275	86.4	43,965	41,619	5,200	36,418	2,344	5.3	7,491
1955	55,122	47,488	86.2	44,475	42,621	5,265	37,356	1,854	4.2	7,634
1956	55,547	47,914	86.3	45,091	43,379	5,040	38,339	1,711	3.8	7,633
1957	56,082	47,964	85.5	45,197	43,357	4,824	38,532	1,841	4.1	8,118
1958	56,640	48,126	85.0	45,521	42,423	4,596	37,827	3,098	6.8	8,514
1959	57,312	48,405	84.5	45,886	43,466	4,532	38,934	2,420	5.2	8,907

Table 1-2—Continued

Year	Total noninstitutional population	Total labor force		Civilian labor force						
					Employed			Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of population	Total	Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	Not in labor force
1960'	58,144	48,870	84.0	46,388	43,904	4,472	39,431	2,486	5.4	9,274
1961	58,826	49,193	83.6	46,653	43,656	4,298	39,359	2,997	6.4	9,633
1962'	59,626	49,395	82.8	46,600	44,177	4,069	40,108	2,423	5.2	10,231
1963	60,627	49,835	82.2	47,129	44,657	3,809	40,849	2,472	5.2	10,792
1964	61,556	50,387	81.9	47,679	45,474	3,691	41,782	2,205	4.6	11,169
1965	62,473	50,946	81.5	48,255	46,340	3,547	42,792	1,914	4.0	11,527
1966	63,351	51,560	81.4	48,471	46,919	3,243	43,675	1,551	3.2	11,792
1967	64,316	52,398	81.5	48,987	47,479	3,164	44,315	1,508	3.1	11,919
1968	65,345	53,030	81.2	49,533	48,114	3,157	44,957	1,419	2.9	12,315
1969	66,365	53,688	80.9	50,221	48,818	2,963	45,855	1,403	2.8	12,677
1970	67,452	54,376	80.6	51,228	48,990	2,862	46,128	2,238	4.4	13,076
1971	68,718	54,956	80.0	52,180	49,390	2,795	46,595	2,789	5.3	13,762
1972'	70,241	55,961	79.7	53,555	50,896	2,849	48,047	2,659	5.0	14,280
1973'	71,567	56,900	79.5	54,624	52,349	2,847	49,502	2,275	4.2	14,667
1974	72,971	57,902	79.3	55,739	53,024	2,919	50,105	2,714	4.9	15,069
1975	74,383	58,390	78.5	56,299	51,857	2,824	49,032	4,442	7.9	15,993
1976	75,798	59,212	78.1	57,174	53,138	2,744	50,394	4,036	7.1	16,585
1977	77,211	60,414	78.2	58,396	54,728	2,671	52,057	3,667	6.3	16,797
1978'	78,569	61,613	78.4	59,620	56,479	2,718	53,761	3,142	5.3	16,956
1979	79,968	62,676	78.4	60,726	57,607	2,686	54,921	3,120	5.1	17,293
1980	81,341	63,396	77.9	61,453	57,186	2,709	54,477	4,267	6.9	17,945
1981	82,476	63,939	77.5	61,974	57,397	2,700	54,697	4,577	7.4	18,537

' Not strictly comparable with data for prior years. For an explanation see "Historic Comparability" under Household Data section of Explanatory Notes in *Employment and Earnings*.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

industries where women had traditionally found employment—education, medical care, and other personal services.

Over the past decade-and-a-half, women under age 45, particularly those 20 to 34 years, have had the highest rates of labor force participation (see table I-4). Currently, two-thirds of the women between 20 and 45 years old are in the labor force (see table I-5). In 1981, nearly 70 percent of all women 20 to 24 years of age, closely followed by 68 percent of those 25 to 29 and 66 percent of those 30 to 34 years, were working or looking for work. About 59 percent of the mothers in this age group had to juggle the responsibilities of home and child care with those of a job. Furthermore, changes in fertility rates and child-spacing patterns during the 1960's are associated with the increased likelihood that women in their twenties would work.

Changes observed in labor force participation, along with population growth, are reflected in marked changes in the median age or the point at which half of all female workers are above and half are below the median age. In 1900, when the labor force participation of women was very low, generally only young women worked, and the median age among working women was 26 years. Subsequently, older women began to enter and reenter the labor force, especially after the prime childbearing ages (25–34 years), and the median age increased to a high of a little over 40 years in the 1960's.

By the late 1960's and early 1970's, the median was on its way down, as young women, by this time wives in their prime childbearing years, entered the labor force. The median age then dropped from nearly 38 years in 1970 to 34 years by the end of the decade (see table I-5). Table I-5 also shows the increasing proportion of the labor force attributable to young women 20–34 years through the decade of the 1970's and the present as well as the accompanying reduction in the median age of working women.

Marital Status.—Married persons continue to dominate the work force in numbers, but their share of the labor force has been declining steadily. From March 1970 to March 1981, the proportion of the labor force composed of married persons living with their spouses fell from 69 to 60 percent, while the labor force share of never-married and divorced persons rose from 24 to 33 percent (see table I-6).

The gradual transformation of the marital composition of the labor force reflects major demographic and social changes that have occurred during the 1970's, particularly the surge of young women into the labor force. Young women and men (25 to 34 years) accounted for half of the total expansion of the labor force between

Table I-3

Labor force participation rates of women and men, annual averages, 1950-81

Year	Participation rate (Percent of population in labor force)	
	Women	Men
1950	33.9	86.4
1951	34.6	86.5
1952	34.7	86.3
1953	34.4	86.0
1954	34.6	85.5
1955	35.7	85.3
1956	36.9	85.5
1957	36.9	84.8
1958	37.1	84.2
1959	37.1	83.7
1960	37.7	83.3
1961	38.1	82.9
1962	37.9	82.0
1963	38.3	81.4
1964	38.7	81.0
1965	39.3	80.7
1966	40.3	80.4
1967	41.1	80.4
1968	41.6	80.1
1969	42.7	79.8
1970	43.3	79.7
1971	43.4	79.1
1972	43.9	78.9
1973	44.7	78.8
1974	45.7	78.7
1975	46.3	77.9
1976	47.3	77.5
1977	48.4	77.7
1978	50.0	77.9
1979	50.9	77.8
1980	51.5	77.4
1981	52.1	77.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

1970 and 1981. Young women were in the forefront of the age group, accounting for 55 percent of the labor force gain (see table I-7). Many of these young workers, born during the post-World War II "baby boom," either postponed marriage or did not marry. Those who did marry were more than twice as likely to become divorced as were workers of a similar age in 1970. The result is that only 64 percent of workers 25-34 years old were married and living with their spouses in 1981, down from 79 percent a decade earlier.[8]

Nonetheless, husband-wife married couples remain the single largest labor force group classified by marital

[8] "Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers, March 1980," News Release, USDL 80-767, and 1981 marital and family tabulations, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-4

Labor force participation rates of women by age, annual averages, selected years, 1950-81

Age	Participation rate (Percent of population in labor force)				
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1981
Total, 16 years and over	33.9	37.7	43.3	51.5	52.1
16 and 17	30.1	29.1	34.9	43.6	42.5
18 and 19	51.3	50.9	53.5	61.9	60.9
20 to 24	46.0	46.1	57.7	68.9	69.6
25 to 34	34.0	36.0	45.0	65.5	66.7
35 to 44	39.1	43.4	51.1	65.5	66.8
45 to 54	37.9	49.8	54.4	59.9	61.1
55 to 64	27.0	37.2	43.0	41.3	41.4
65 and over	9.0	10.8	9.7	8.1	8.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

status. Married women living with their husbands posted unprecedented labor force gains that were matched only by the labor force expansion of never-married males (see table I-6). Nonetheless, the labor force participation rate of married women is the lowest of any marital status group, except widowed, while the rates for divorced and never-married women are considerably higher than married women.

The fact that married women continue to have the lowest participation rate in the work force may be explained in part by the presence of young children and the specialization of labor within a great many married households. While the pattern is undergoing considerable change, it is still such that society accords husbands a greater amount of responsibility in providing income, although the wife may be a full-time or part-time worker. At the same time, the sharp upward trend in labor force activity among married women bodes some changes in the management of children and home responsibilities in the future.

The number of married women (living with their husbands) in the labor force has more than tripled over the last few decades, from nearly 8 million in 1950 to more than 25 million in March 1981 (see table I-8). Between 1970 and 1981, the number of wives working or looking for work increased by 39 percent or 7 million. Wives in the 25-to-34-year-old age group accounted for more than half of the labor force gain among women. The rate of labor force participation for all married women jumped 10 percentage points over the decade—from 41 percent in March 1970 to 51 percent in March 1981. The rate was only 22 percent in 1950.

In contrast, the participation rate of husbands (wife present) has been in a long-time decline. At about 81 percent in March 1981, the rate for husbands had dropped by 6 percentage points since 1970—a reduction

Table I-5

Women in the labor force, by age, annual averages, selected years, 1950–81

Age	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1981
Total: Number (in thousands)	18,389	20,548	23,240	26,200	31,543	37,475	45,487	46,696
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 and 17	3.3	3.1	3.5	3.6	4.2	4.5	3.9	3.6
18 and 19	6.0	5.3	5.4	6.0	6.1	6.5	5.9	5.4
20 to 24	14.5	11.9	11.1	12.8	15.5	16.4	15.9	16.0
25 to 34	22.3	20.7	17.8	16.5	18.1	22.9	26.6	27.7
35 to 44	22.6	23.4	22.8	21.8	18.9	17.5	19.3	19.4
45 to 54	18.1	20.2	22.7	21.8	20.7	18.0	15.6	15.2
55 to 64	10.0	11.6	12.8	13.7	13.2	11.5	10.3	10.3
65 and over	3.2	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.4	2.8	2.6	2.5
Median age (years)	36.7	38.9	40.4	40.1	37.8	34.9	34.1	34.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-6

Changes in civilian labor force, by sex and marital status, March 1970, 1980, and 1981

Sex and marital status	March 1970	March 1980	March 1981	Change from March 1970 to 1981	
				Number	Percent
Both sexes, total (number in thousands)	82,058	105,449	107,721	24,866	100.0
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	—
Women, total	38.3	42.6	43.1	15,181	61.1
Never married	8.5	10.7	10.8	4,663	18.8
Married, husband present	22.6	23.6	23.6	7,083	28.5
Married, husband absent	1.8	1.8	1.9	843	3.4
Widowed	3.1	2.3	2.3	– 126	– 0.5
Divorced	2.3	4.2	4.5	2,908	11.7
Men, total	61.7	57.4	56.9	9,685	38.9
Never married	11.4	14.8	14.7	6,254	25.2
Married, wife present	46.8	37.6	36.8	536	2.2
Married, wife absent	1.3	1.5	1.6	712	2.9
Widowed	0.8	0.5	0.5	– 129	– 0.5
Divorced	1.4	2.9	3.3	2,332	9.4

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

greater than that recorded during the preceding two decades—and continued to decline in 1980.[9] Although outnumbering married women at 40 million, married men posted a smaller labor force gain—1.5 million since 1970, when their labor force participation rate was nearly 87 percent.

In recent years, more and more women have been postponing marriage, and marital breakups have become more widespread. Consequently, the number of never-married and divorced women in the labor force has risen rapidly. The number of never-married women increased from close to 7 million in 1970 to nearly 12 million in March 1981, up by about 67 percent over the period. The number of divorced women working or looking for work more than doubled, from nearly 2 million to 6 million.

Major demographic shifts, particularly the increase in the proportion of young adults who either delay marriage or remain single, have been responsible for much of the striking upward trend in labor force participation among single women. Single, never-married women, many of whom are still in school, have a rate of participation about midway between that of divorced (75 per-

[9] *Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force, March 1979.* Beverly L. Johnson, Special Labor Force Report 237, p. 48, January 1981, and *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1980, and March 1981 marital and family tabulations, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Also see, "Marital and Family Patterns of Workers: An Update." *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1982, pp. 53–56, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-7

Labor force participation of women and men 25-34 years old, by marital status, March 1970 and March 1981

Sex and marital status	1970			1981		
	Labor force		Labor force participation rate	Labor force		Labor force participation rate
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent	
Both sexes, total 25-34 (number in thousands)	17,394	100.0	70.0	30,257	100.0	80.7
Women, total	5,789	33.3	45.7	12,945	42.8	67.4
Never married	873	5.0	80.8	2,593	8.6	82.6
Married, husband present	4,104	23.6	39.7	7,955	26.3	61.6
Married, husband absent	327	1.9	53.6	713	2.4	66.9
Widowed	28	0.2	(2)	85	0.3	64.6
Divorced	458	2.6	79.7	1,600	5.3	82.1
Men, total	11,605	66.7	95.2	17,312	57.2	94.7
Never married	1,546	8.9	86.4	4,155	13.7	88.3
Married, wife present	9,565	55.0	98.3	11,342	37.5	97.5
Married, wife absent	226	1.3	66.9	578	1.9	92.5
Widowed	11	(1)	(2)	14	(1)	(2)
Divorced	257	1.5	82.1	1,223	4.0	94.2

[1]Less than 0.05 percent.
[2]Rate not shown where base is less than 75,000.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

cent) and married (husband present, 51 percent) women. Like married women, never-married women posted a substantial increase in labor force activity over the decade, unlike the more stable rates for divorced and widowed women.

The labor force participation rate of never-married women was 62 percent in 1981, up from 53 percent in 1970. Slightly below the rate for never-married women is the 61 percent labor force rate for the relatively small number (population 3 million) of women who are separated or whose husbands are absent in the Armed Forces. This rate was up substantially from 52 percent in March 1970. The labor force participation of widowed women was not too different between 1981 and 1970—22 and 26 percent, respectively. Among widowed, divorced, and separated women, as among never-married women, the absence of a husband tends to lower women's income and make work for pay a necessity. Among the widowed, however, the fact that many are in the retirement age bracket tends to lower their labor force participation rate.

The financial need in the absence of a husband can be inferred from the high degree of labor force activity among divorced women, who, by far, have the highest participation rate of any group of women classified by marital status. Their participation rate rose only moderately from 72 percent in 1960 and 1970 to 75 percent in 1981, reflecting the fact that, if divorced, women may have little option about working or not working. Another factor in the high participation rate of divorced women may be that they are less likely to have young children with them at home than are married women. More than half of all divorced women had no children under 18 years of age, and less than 5 percent had very young children—under 3 years of age—in March 1981 (see table I-9).

The rates of labor force participation for each marital status group did not reveal the age variations that exist within each group (see table I-10). Among never-married women, the rate rises with increasing age to a peak of 83 percent for those 25 to 34 years, while the sharp dropoff begins for those 55 years and over. For married women, the rate was essentially about 62 percent for each of the age groups between 20 and 44 years of age; while the sharp decline is similar to that of single women.

Generally, divorced women have higher labor force participation rates than women in other marital groups, except for never-married women of ages 25 to 34, who posted 83 percent—essentially the same as that of divorced women (82 percent). For teenagers 16 to 19 years old, the rate was 46 percent, compared with 49 percent for never-married women. In March 1981 the rates of divorced women ranged between a high of 84 percent for workers 30 to 44 years and a low of about 64 percent for those of ages 55 to 64. Even divorced women 65 and over had the highest rate (21 percent) for that age group.

There is a particularly large difference in labor force participation rates of never-married and married women (husband present) in the 25-to-34-year-old age group,

Table I-8

Labor force and marital status of women, selected years, 1950-81

Item	April 1950	March 1960	March 1970	March 1980	March 1981
Population					
Number (in thousands)					
Total, 16 years and over	54,988	61,911	73,261	87,939	89,259
Never married	9,305	9,603	13,141	18,273	18,674
Married, husband present	35,574	40,176	45,055	49,699	49,883
Married, husband absent	2,001	2,362	2,730	3,243	3,412
Divorced	1,373	1,707	2,695	5,966	6,445
Widowed	6,735	8,063	9,640	10,758	10,845
Percent distribution					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Never married	16.9	15.5	17.9	20.8	20.9
Married, husband present	64.7	64.9	61.5	56.5	55.9
Married, husband absent	3.6	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.8
Divorced	2.5	2.8	3.7	6.8	7.2
Widowed	12.2	13.0	13.2	12.2	12.2
Labor Force					
Number (in thousands)					
Total	15,560	21,329	31,233	44,934	46,414
Never married	4,304	4,233	6,965	11,242	11,628
Married, husband present	7,682	12,244	18,377	24,900	25,460
Married, husband absent	933	1,224	1,422	1,928	2,076
Divorced	*2,641	1,222	1,927	4,443	4,835
Widowed		2,406	2,542	2,421	2,416
Percent distribution					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Never married	27.7	19.8	22.3	25.0	25.1
Married, husband present	49.4	57.4	58.8	55.4	54.9
Married, husband absent	6.0	5.7	4.6	4.3	4.5
Divorced	*17.0	5.7	6.2	9.9	10.4
Widowed		11.3	8.1	5.4	5.2
Labor Force Participation Rate					
Total	28.3	34.5	42.6	51.1	52.0
Never married	46.3	44.1	53.0	61.5	62.3
Married, husband present	21.6	30.5	40.8	50.1	51.0
Married, husband absent	46.6	51.8	52.1	59.4	60.8
Divorced	*32.6	71.6	71.5	74.5	75.0
Widowed		29.8	26.4	22.5	22.3

*Data for divorced and widowed not available separately.
Source: *Perspectives on Working Women: A Databook*, Bulletin 2080, 1980, data for March 1980 and 1981, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

when women are most likely to have children. This gap is narrowing as young married women with children enter the labor force. During the 1970's, the rate for single women 25 to 34 years remained in the 81-82 percent range, posting 83 percent in March 1981. The labor force participation rate of married women in that age group, however, jumped from 39 to 62 percent over the same period.

Family Status of Women Workers

The labor force status of women varies considerably by their family status; for example, wives continually have participated in the work force at a lower rate than women who maintain families on their own. In recent years, however, both groups have gained public attention for different reasons. On the one hand, the increas-

Table I-9

Labor force status of women 16 years and over, by marital status and presence and age of youngest child, March 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Marital and labor force status	Total	No children under 18 years	With children under 18 years						
				6 to 17 years only			Under 6 years		
			Total	Total	14 to 17 years, none younger	6 to 13 years	Total	3 to 5 years, none younger	Under 3 years
Women, 16 years and over, total	89,259	57,531	31,728	17,548	5,584	11,964	14,181	5,535	8,646
In labor force	46,414	27,992	18,422	11,490	3,672	7,817	6,933	3,107	3,826
Labor force participation rate	52.0	48.7	58.1	65.5	65.8	65.3	48.9	56.1	44.3
Unemployment rate	7.6	7.4	8.0	6.7	5.1	7.4	10.2	8.4	11.7
Never married	18,674	17,567	1,107	389	75	315	717	245	472
In labor force	11,628	11,048	579	252	47	204	328	134	193
Labor force participation rate	62.3	62.9	52.3	64.6	(1)	64.9	45.7	54.7	41.0
Unemployment rate	11.5	10.7	26.8	21.8	(1)	22.2	30.7	26.3	33.8
Married, husband present	49,883	24,666	25,217	13,492	4,274	9,217	11,725	4,351	7,374
In labor force	25,460	11,426	14,035	8,432	2,704	5,728	5,603	2,383	3,219
Labor force participation rate	51.0	46.3	55.7	62.5	63.3	62.1	47.8	54.8	43.7
Unemployment rate	5.8	4.9	6.5	5.3	4.2	5.9	8.2	6.7	9.4
Married, husband absent	3,412	1,601	1,811	1,016	313	702	795	355	440
In labor force	2,076	959	1,116	711	220	491	406	191	214
Labor force participation rate	60.8	59.9	61.7	70.0	70.1	69.9	51.0	53.9	48.7
Unemployment rate	12.5	8.0	16.4	14.2	8.6	16.7	20.2	17.5	22.6
Widowed	10,845	10,196	649	565	287	278	85	56	28
In labor force	2,416	2,024	392	356	185	170	36	30	6
Labor force participation rate	22.3	19.9	60.3	63.0	64.7	61.3	42.2	(1)	(1)
Unemployment rate	5.8	4.9	10.2	10.2	9.8	10.5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Divorced	6,445	3,500	2,945	2,086	635	1,451	858	527	331
In labor force	4,835	2,535	2,300	1,740	516	1,223	561	368	192
Labor force participation rate	75.0	72.4	78.1	83.4	81.2	84.3	65.4	69.9	58.1
Unemployment rate	6.8	5.8	7.9	7.1	5.5	7.8	10.3	8.0	14.7

(1) Rate not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Note: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

ing labor force participation of wives has made the multiearner family a more common phenomenon and has increased awareness of the contribution of wives' earnings toward improved economic status of the family. On the other hand, marital disruption has seen the number of women who maintain families grow steadily, thus placing more single-earner, female family heads at an even greater economic disadvantage than in the past.

In 1981 there were 60.7 million families in the United States, up from 51.2 million in 1970. Of the total, 49.3 million were families in which husband and wife were present. Since 1970, married-couple families increased at a much slower pace (11 percent) than families maintained by either a woman alone (69 percent) or by a man alone (59 percent). Families maintained by women accounted for 9.4 million or nearly 16 percent of all families—more than 5 times the nearly 2 million families maintained by men without a wife present (see table I-11). The growth among women who maintain families is due mainly to the rise in divorce.[18]

Between 1970 and 1980, the ratio of the number of currently divorced persons, per 1,000 persons who were married and living with their spouse, rose by 113 percent. The ratio rose from 47 divorced persons per 1,000 husbands and wives in intact marriages in 1970 to 100 per

[18] *Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force, March 1979*, op. cit., p. 51; and unpublished 1981 marital and family tabulations, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-10

Labor force participation rates of women, by age and marital status, March 1981

Age	Participation rate (Percent of population in labor force)					
	All women	Never married	Married, husband present	Married, husband absent	Divorced	Widowed
Total, 16 years and over	50.2	62.3	51.0	60.8	75.0	22.3
16 to 19	48.6	48.8	45.9	52.0	(1)	(1)
20 to 24	68.2	73.1	61.6	61.3	78.1	(1)
25 to 34	67.4	82.6	61.6	66.9	82.1	64.6
35 to 44	66.5	79.1	62.5	70.9	84.5	65.5
45 to 54	61.7	74.3	58.0	65.4	77.9	67.6
55 to 64	42.1	56.5	36.5	48.9	70.9	46.8
65 and over	8.5	13.6	7.3	12.3	20.5	7.9

[1] Rate not shown where base is less than 75,000.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-11

Families, by type, selected years, 1940-81

(Numbers in thousands)

Year[1]	All families	Married-couple families[2]	Other families[3]		
			Maintained by men[2]	Maintained by women	
				Total	As percent of all families
1940	32,166	26,971	1,579	3,616	11.2
1947	35,794	31,211	1,186	3,397	9.5
1950	39,303	34,440	1,184	3,679	9.4
1955	41,951	36,378	1,339	4,234	10.1
1960	45,062	39,293	1,275	4,494	10.0
1965	47,836	41,649	1,181	5,006	10.5
1970	51,227	44,415	1,239	5,573	10.9
1971	51,947	44,735	1,262	5,950	11.5
1972	53,280	45,743	1,353	6,184	11.6
1973	54,361	46,308	1,453	6,600	12.1
1974	55,041	46,810	1,433	6,798	12.4
1975	55,699	47,069	1,400	7,230	13.0
1976	56,244	47,318	1,444	7,482	13.3
1977	56,709	47,497	1,499	7,713	13.6
1978	57,215	47,692	1,594	8,236	14.4
1979	57,804	47,385	1,654	8,458	14.6
1980	59,910	49,132	1,769	9,009	15.0
1981	60,702	49,316	1,969	9,416	15.5

[1] Data were collected in April of 1940, 1947, and 1955 and March of all other years.
[2] Includes men in Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.
[3] Never married, widowed, divorced, or separated persons.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

1,000, in 1980. Women had higher ratios (120) than men (79), blacks had higher ratios (203) than whites (92), and persons aged 30 to 44 years old had higher ratios than other age groups, in 1980. The highest ratio overall with regard to race, sex, or age, was for black women: 257 divorced per 1,000 married and living with their husbands."

" *Population Profile of the United States: 1980*, p. 14, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 363, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Rise in Multiearner Families

The rising number of multiearner families has been one of the most important socioeconomic developments of the 1970's. In March 1981, a record 3 out of every 5 married-couple families reported having had at least two members who were earners during the previous year (see table I-12). Since 1970 the number of such families has increased by more than 4 million, reaching 29.5 million in 1981. Almost exclusively responsible for the rising number of multiearner families has been the sharp increase in the number and proportion of working wives.

The impact of wives' earnings on family income is clearly shown by the income differential between one-earner and multiearner families. In 1980 the average annual income in multiearner married-couple families was $28,025, compared with $19,368 in similar single-earner families. Married-couple families with children under 18 were far more likely to have two or more earners than were married-couple families with no children—68 percent compared with 51 percent in March 1978.[12] This reflects the greater economic pressure on young families with children (who are also generally younger and have not reached earning peaks) and the comparatively high concentration of older, often retired, husbands and wives among families with no children.

Table I-12 shows the relative economic advantage of married couples and men who maintain families, compared with women who maintain families. Average (median) annual income of married-couple families in 1980 ($23,263) surpassed that of families maintained by male householders ($17,743), and was more than twice as high as annual income of families maintained by female householders ($10,233). The higher median income of married-couple families is due, in large part, to the presence of more than one earner. More than 60 percent of the married couples had two or more earners—usually the husband and wife. Only about 28 percent of families maintained by women, compared with 42 percent of those maintained by men, were multiearner families.

See chapter III for details on the income and earnings of women workers.

Contribution of Wives

Working wives continue to make substantial contributions to their families' economic welfare. In 1980 they contributed about 27 percent to family income, a proportion that varied considerably by the extent of their work experience (table I-13). The overall proportion of earnings that wives contributed to family earnings was 38 percent when wives worked full time year round (50 to 52 weeks). The contribution was much smaller—12 percent—if wives worked full time part of the year or part time.

Among wives who worked 50 to 52 weeks a year, their contribution was even greater as family income decreased. Among married couples whose annual income was less than $10,000 in 1980, wives contributed 69 percent of that income; where the annual income was $25,000 or more, their contribution dropped to about 35 percent. In addition, wives' earnings accounted for a somewhat larger proportion of family income where husbands were under 25 (31 percent) and decreased with the increasing age of husbands. Table I-14 contains data on the income contribution by women who maintain their own families. Although many of the work experience relationships discussed above concerning married couples hold true for sole female householders, earnings and income averages at every level are much less for families maintained by women. These women's earnings, however, represent a larger proportion of total family income than the earnings of wives, reflecting the lack of second earners.

These patterns of family income contributed by women have remained relatively unchanged throughout the 1970's. One factor accounting for this is that there has been very little change in the occupational distribution of wives. Many women and wives are not employed in the high skill, high paying jobs. It is largely because of this that the basic ratio of women's to men's earnings has not changed much for decades. (See chapter III for more detail on the income and earnings of women workers.)

Working Mothers

Between 1950 and 1981 the labor force participation rate of mothers in the United States more than tripled, probably reflecting the most significant labor force development the country experienced during that period (see table I-15). The sharpest increase during the forties and fifties was among mothers of school-age children. However, this pattern has reversed itself since the early 1960's, with the sharpest increase occurring among young mothers of preschool-age children (see chart I-2).

In March 1970 the labor force participation rate of mothers (married with husbands present) was only a little lower than that for all women—40 percent and 41 percent, respectively. In 1981, the rate for these mothers was 56 percent—ahead of the 52 percent rate for all women and not too different from that of all mothers (58 percent). Even more striking was the increase in the labor force activity of married mothers with children under 6 years of age (preschool). The participation rate of these mothers increased from 30 percent in 1970 to 48 percent in 1981—a greater rate of labor force increase than mothers with school-age children, whose participation rose from 49 to 63 percent. Of course, the number of

[12] *Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force, March 1979*, op. cit., pp. 48–49, 1981 marital and family tabulations, *ibid.*, and *"Marital and Family Patterns of Workers: An Update,"* op. cit.

Table I-12

Number of earners in families, relationship, and median family income in 1980, by type of family, March 1981

Number of earners, relationship, and type of family	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution	Median family income in 1980
Total	60,702	100.0	$21,003
No earners	8,363	13.8	8,434
1 earner	19,403	32.0	16,603
2 or more earners	32,937	54.3	27,115
Husband-wife families, total	49,316	100.0	23,263
No earners	5,903	12.0	10,187
1 earner	13,900	28.2	19,368
Husband only	11,621	23.6	20,472
Wife only	1,707	3.5	13,612
Other relative only	573	1.2	16,148
2 or more earners	29,513	59.8	28,025
Husband and wife	25,557	51.8	27,745
Husband and other, not wife	3,380	6.9	31,031
Husband nonearner	576	1.2	22,684
Other families, total	11,385	100.0	N/A
Maintained by women,[1] total	9,416	100.0	10,233
No earners	2,216	23.5	4,494
1 earner	4,612	49.0	10,350
2 or more earners	2,589	27.5	18,673
Maintained by men,[1] total	1,969	100.0	17,743
No earners	244	12.4	7,790
1 earner	891	45.3	15,577
2 or more earners	835	42.4	23,785

[1]Divorced, separated, widowed or never-married persons.
Note: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

working mothers with preschool children in 1981 was smaller (5.5 million) than those with school-age children (11.4 million). However, the numbers are up substantially from 1970—3.9 and 6.3 million, respectively. The growing labor force activity of married mothers (who live with their husbands) speaks not only to rising economic needs and aspirations but also to changing family and child care arrangements.

All women with children contributed strongly to the tremendous surge of women into the labor force from 1970 to 1981. These mothers accounted for 40 percent, or 6 million, of the 15 million expansion in the female segment of the labor force over the period. By March 1981, more than 18 million, or about 58 percent, of the women with children under 18 years were working or looking for work (see table I-9). This compares with 12 million or 42 percent in 1970, and 8 million or 30 percent in 1960.[13]

[13] *Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force, March 1979, op. cit., p. 49* and 1981 marital and family tabulations, *ibid.*

Although most working mothers were married (14 million) and living with their husbands in March 1981, more than 4 million, or 1 out of 4, was single—divorced (2 million), separated (1 million), never married (600,000), and widowed (400,000). Except for never-married mothers, the participation rate for single mothers was higher than that for married mothers. Divorced mothers were the most likely to be in the labor force—78 percent—while never-married mothers were the least likely—52 percent. The low level of labor force participation among never-married mothers reflects the greater presence of very young children. About 57 percent of these mothers had children under 6 years of age, substantially greater than any other single or married group (see table I-9). Labor force participation is generally highest among women with school-age children and lowest for women with young children under 3 years, regardless of marital status.

Many working mothers are also the principal support of their own families. In March 1981 more than 4 million mothers with children under 18 years (22 percent of the

Table I-13

Earnings of married women, husband present, as percent of family income in 1980, by selected characteristics of married-couple families, white, black, and Hispanic origin, March 1981

Characteristic	Number of wives (in thousands)	Median percent of family income accounted for by earnings of wife
Total, wives with earnings	27,697	26.7
Age of husband		
Under 25 years	2,050	30.6
25 to 44 years	14,720	27.5
45 years and over	10,927	25.1
Wife worked 50 to 52 weeks full time	12,325	38.3
Family income:		
Under $10,000	293	69.0
$10,000 to $14,999	701	56.0
$15,000 to $19,999	1,283	46.6
$20,000 to $24,999	1,807	42.6
$25,000 and over	8,241	35.0
Median family income	$30,608	—
Wife worked 27 to 49 weeks full time	3,494	29.9
Median family income	$25,061	—
Wife worked 1 to 26 weeks full time or 1 to 52 weeks part time	11,878	11.9
Median family income	$23,102	—
White		
Total, wives with earnings	24,919	25.9
Wife worked 50 to 52 weeks full time	10,895	38.0
Family income:		
Under $10,000	238	68.1
$10,000 to $14,999	583	56.4
$15,000 to $19,999	1,088	46.5
$20,000 to $24,999	1,594	42.4
$25,000 and over	7,391	34.8
Median family income	$30,914	—
Wife worked 27 to 49 weeks full time	3,104	29.5
Median family income	$25,425	—
Wife worked 1 to 26 weeks full time or 1 to 52 weeks part time	10,920	11.5
Median family income	$23,626	—
Black		
Total, wives with earnings	2,141	34.3
Wife worked 50 to 52 weeks full time	1,104	42.2
Family income:		
Under $10,000	51	(1)
$10,000 to $14,999	87	52.6
$15,000 to $19,999	157	46.3
$20,000 to $24,999	171	45.2
$25,000 and over	637	38.0
Median family income	$27,527	—
Wife worked 27 to 49 weeks full time	286	33.0
Median family income	$23,003	—
Wife worked 1 to 26 weeks full time or 1 to 52 weeks part time	751	18.0
Median family income	$15,799	—
Hispanic Origin		
Total, wives with earnings	1,245	29.5
Wife worked 50 to 52 weeks full time	539	39.7
Family income:		
Under $10,000	17	(1)
$10,000 to $14,999	48	(1)
$15,000 to $19,999	85	42.3
$20,000 to $24,999	117	41.4
$25,000 and over	272	35.4
Median family income	$25,145	—
Wife worked 27 to 49 weeks full time	193	31.6
Median family income	$21,173	—
Wife worked 1 to 26 weeks full time or 1 to 52 weeks part time	513	14.2
Median family income	$16,588	—

[1] Median not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

mothers in the labor force) were maintaining their own families, up from 1 of every 10 mothers, or nearly 2 million, 10 years earlier (see table I-16). These mothers represented 70 percent of the women who maintain families in the labor force and more than 43 percent of all women (with and without children) maintaining families. Mothers in one-parent families had a much higher labor force participation rate (68 percent) than those in two-parent families (56 percent) in March 1981. Even when children under 6 were present, 54 percent of the mothers maintaining their own families were in the labor force, compared with 48 percent of wives with children the same ages.

The strength of the labor force commitment of women and mothers in the 1970's reflects the sharp decline in birth rates. Women typically gave birth to one or two

Table I-14

Earnings of women maintaining families as percent of family income in 1980, by selected characteristics, March 1981

Characteristic	Number of women (in thousands)	Median percent of family income accounted for by earnings of women
Total, women with earnings maintaining families	5,886	70.3
Age of householder[1]		
Under 25 years	519	70.8
25 to 44 years	3,467	78.2
45 years and over	1,901	51.4
Householder[1] worked 50 to 52 weeks full time	3,334	78.5
Family income:		
Under $5,000	49	78.3
$5,000 to $9,999	561	84.5
$10,000 to $14,999	921	83.3
$15,000 and over	1,804	69.0
Median family income	$15,940	—
Householder[1] worked 27 to 49 weeks full time	794	75.0
Median family income	$10,379	—
Householder[1] worked 1 to 26 weeks full time or 1 to 52 weeks part time	1,758	36.8
Median family income	$ 6,795	—

[1] Householder refers to the woman maintaining the family.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

children on the average, rather than two or three, the norm during the 1960's. The estimated total fertility rate in 1980 was 1,875 children per 1,000 women, reflecting an average of 1.9 children. The annual total fertility rate declined steadily after the height of the postwar baby boom and reached an historical low point in 1976. Since then, the rate has fluctuated from year to year, with the recent trend being slightly upward. The increases in the annual number of births that have occurred in the past few years are principally the result of large increases in the female population of reproduction age (15 to 44 years) and very small increases in the rate of child bearing.[14]

Thus, while the total number of children in families dropped from 65.8 million to 59.1 million over the 1970–81 period, the number of children whose mother worked or looked for work rose considerably (see tables

[14] *Population Profile of the United States: 1980, op. cit.*, p. 13.

Table I-15

Labor force participation rates of married women, husband present, by presence and age of own children, 1950–81

Year[1]	Participation rate (percent of population in labor force)				
	Total	With no children under 18 years	With children under 18 years		
			Total	6 to 17 years, none younger	Under 6 years
1950	23.8	30.3	18.4	28.3	11.9
1951	25.2	31.0	20.5	30.3	14.0
1952	25.3	30.9	20.7	31.1	13.9
1953	26.3	31.2	22.4	32.2	15.5
1954	26.6	31.6	22.7	33.2	14.9
1955	27.7	32.7	24.0	34.7	16.2
1956	29.0	35.3	24.5	36.4	15.9
1957	29.6	35.6	25.3	36.6	17.0
1958	30.2	35.4	26.5	37.6	18.2
1959	30.9	35.2	27.9	39.8	18.7
1960	30.5	34.7	27.6	39.0	18.6
1961	32.7	37.3	29.6	41.7	20.0
1962	32.7	36.1	30.3	41.8	21.3
1963	33.7	37.4	31.2	41.5	22.5
1964	34.4	37.8	32.0	43.0	22.7
1965	34.7	38.3	32.2	42.7	23.3
1966	35.4	38.4	33.2	43.7	24.2
1967	36.8	38.9	35.3	45.0	26.5
1968	38.3	40.1	36.9	46.9	27.6
1969	39.6	41.0	38.6	48.6	28.5
1970	40.8	42.2	39.7	49.2	30.3
1971	40.8	42.1	39.7	49.4	29.6
1972	41.5	42.7	40.5	50.2	30.1
1973	42.2	42.8	41.7	50.1	32.7
1974	43.0	43.0	43.1	51.2	34.4
1975	44.4	43.9	44.9	52.3	36.6
1976	45.0	43.8	46.1	53.7	37.4
1977	46.6	44.9	48.2	55.6	39.3
1978	47.6	44.7	50.2	57.2	41.6
1979	49.4	46.7	51.9	59.1	43.2
1980	51.1	48.1	56.6	64.3	46.8
1981	52	48.7	58.1	65.5	48.9

[1] Data were collected in April of 1951–55 and March of all other years.

Note: Children are defined as "own" children of the women and include never-married sons and daughters, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, and cousins, and unrelated children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

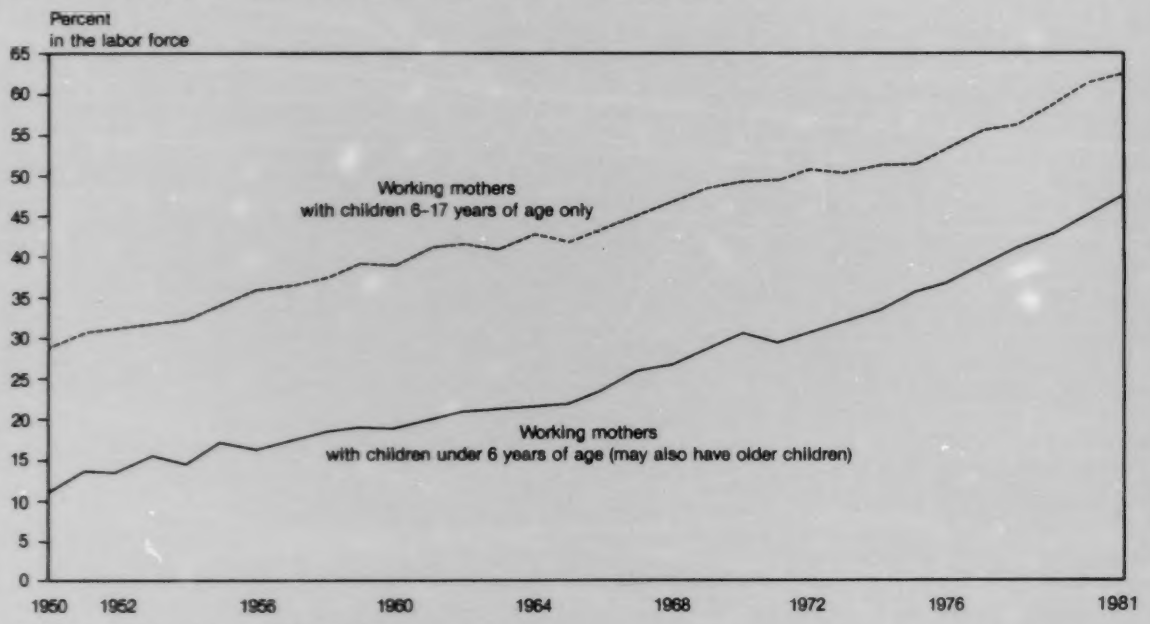
I-16 and I-17).[15] The drop in the number of children reflects a decrease in the number of children in husband-wife families. The number of children in single-parent

[15] For a detailed discussion on working mothers during the 1970's, see "Working Mothers in the 1970's: A Look at the Statistics," Elizabeth Waldman and others, *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1979, pp. 39–49.

Chart I-2.

Mothers are more likely to work than ever before. Mothers of school age children were the most likely to be in the labor force in 1981.

Civilian labor force participation rates of married women, by age of children, 1950–1981.



†Data cover March of each year except for April 1952.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-16

Labor force status of divorced, separated, widowed, or never-married women and men maintaining families, by presence and age of own children under 18, March 1970 and March 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Presence and age of children[1]	March 1970			March 1981		
	Population	Labor force	Labor force participation rate	Population	Labor force	Labor force participation rate
Women maintaining families	5,573	2,950	52.9	9,416	5,743	61.0
With children under 18 years	2,924	1,736	59.4	5,935	4,030	67.9
With children 6–17 years	1,813	1,215	67.0	3,823	2,888	75.5
With children under 6 years	1,111	521	46.9	2,112	1,143	54.1
With no children under 18	2,649	1,214	45.8	3,482	1,713	49.2
Men[2] maintaining families	1,239	893	72.1	1,989	1,507	76.5
With children under 18 years	333	304	91.3	692	602	87.0
With children 6–17 years	262	237	90.5	513	450	83.4
With children under 6 years	71	67	(3)	179	152	84.9
With no children under 18	906	589	65.0	1,278	898	70.3

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married sons, daughters, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Includes a few male members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Note: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-17

Number of own children under 18 years old, by age, type of family, and labor force status of mother, March 1970 and March 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of family and labor force status of mother	Total children under 18		Children 6 to 17		Children under 6	
	March 1970	March 1981	March 1970	March 1981	March 1970	March 1981
Total children[1]	65,755	59,148	46,149	40,842	19,606	18,306
Mother in labor force	25,544	31,785	19,954	23,569	5,590	8,216
Mother not in labor force	39,550	26,269	25,627	16,398	13,923	9,871
Husband-wife families	58,399	47,542	40,779	32,111	17,920	15,431
Mother in labor force	21,982	25,178	17,035	18,307	4,947	6,871
Mother not in labor force	36,417	22,364	23,444	13,804	12,973	8,560
Families maintained by women[2]	6,695	10,513	5,102	7,857	1,593	2,656
Mother in labor force	3,562	6,607	2,919	5,262	643	1,345
Mother not in labor force	3,133	3,906	2,183	2,595	950	1,311
Families maintained by men[2]	661	1,094	568	875	93	219

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married sons, daughters, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Includes only divorced, separated, widowed, or never-married persons.

Note: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

families—maintained largely by mothers—rose over the decade. However, the average number of children per single female family was down from 2.26 in 1970 to 1.87 in 1980. The average number of children per family was slightly higher for minority families.[16]

Despite low birth rates, the number of children with working mothers is at the highest level ever. In March 1981, nearly 32 million children under 18, or 54 percent of all children, had mothers in the labor force. This compares with 25.5 million, or 39 percent, who had working mothers in 1970. In addition, 45 percent of all children below age 6 had mothers in the labor force, compared with 29 percent at the outset of 1970. In families maintained by women, somewhat less than 7 million children under 18 years, or about 63 percent of all such children, had working mothers.

Child Care

Child care services have been increasing steadily as more and more mothers enter the labor market. According to data from the Bureau of the Census in October 1980, there were 891,000 more children enrolled in nursery schools than in 1970—2.0 million compared with 1.1 million—an increase of more than 80 percent. This increase occurred despite the fact that there was a 15 percent drop in the number of eligible 3-and-4-year-olds. Over the same period, the number of kindergarten enrollees was substantially unchanged at 3.2 million.[17]

Recent studies conclude that the most important caretakers of children under 14 years of age continue to be nuclear families and public schools, supplemented by a diverse array of extended family, community, and purchase-for-care arrangements. Nonetheless, the dramatic rise in working mothers has caused some changes in the management of child-care arrangements. According to a Bureau of the Census report, by 1977 a marked change had occurred in child care arrangements utilized by American women who were employed full time between 1958 and 1977 (most recent data). Only 29 percent of these preschool-age children whose mothers worked full time were cared for in their own home, while 47 percent were cared for in someone else's home, but usually by a nonrelative of the child. The use of the group day care services increased threefold to 15 percent, and care by both mother and father fell from a combined total of 26 percent in 1958 to 19 percent in 1977.[18]

Despite the rise of mothers who reported using child care centers and related community and other marketplace facilities, there is strong concern for parental and home environment, particularly for young (preschool)

[16] *Families Maintained by Female Householders, 1970-79*, Current Population Reports, Special Studies Series P-23, No. 107, October 1980, p. 21, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Also 1981 marital and family tabulations, *op. cit.*

[17] "Nursery School and Kindergarten Enrollment of Children and Labor Force Status of Their Mothers: October 1967 to 1976." Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 318, and Advanced Report, Series P-20, No. 362; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

[18] "Trends in Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers." July 1982, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 117, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

children. The Working Family Project, a study of lower-middle income dual earner couples with preschool children in the Boston area, found that about one-third of the respondent families staggered working hours to cover their family and child care needs. These parents were reluctant to use day care centers alone to allow them to work normal or simultaneous hours, even though their children would attend child care centers outside the home for part of the day. For short stays, these parents viewed child care centers as part of the socialization of children. In other instances, mothers became paid day care providers while their children were preschoolers in order to remain in the home.[19]

On the other hand, group day care or child care centers allowed women who wanted to work, and who otherwise would be unable, an opportunity to do so. A study of 13,000 children in publicly subsidized day care (conducted by the Massachusetts Department of Social Services) indicated that 70 percent of the welfare families enrolling their children in day care do so in order to work or to seek work. The study found that 800 of the families with children enrolled in subsidized day care qualified for welfare payments but chose not to accept assistance. The study tended to disprove the stereotype that recipients were unwilling to work and underlined the role of subsidized day care centers in helping families to get off welfare.[20]

Historically, the Federal Government has supported various programs in child care. In fiscal year 1980, the Federal Government spent $2.0 billion on child care subsidies. Approximately one-half of this amount was spent through Federal tax incentives. These incentives are available to all individual taxpayers, primarily through the Child Care Tax Credit, whereby expenses incurred for the care of dependents may be claimed if the expenditure enables parents to work or go to school. In 1976, taxpayers claimed dependent care credits costing the Federal Government approximately $500 million, indicating a significant increase in the use of this type of subsidy by 1980.

The Economic Recovery Tax Act (ERTA) of 1981 increases to 30 percent the tax credit for child and dependent care expenses related to employment for taxpayers earning $10,000 or less, beginning with income earned after December 31, 1981. The former law allowed a credit of 20 percent of such expenses incurred to enable the taxpayer to be gainfully employed. The credit is available to all eligible taxpayers regardless of the gross income of the family, whether or not they itemize deductions, and whichever tax form they file. The new law provides a sliding scale allowing low-income taxpayers to take a tax credit for a higher percentage of their dependent care expenses. The new law also increases the amount of expenses eligible for computing the credit from $2,000 to $2,400 for one dependent and from $4,000 to $4,800 for two or more dependents.[21]

As with the earlier law, the expenses must be for services in the employee's home, except for out-of-home care for a dependent under age 15. Child care payments to relatives, including those living in the same household still qualify for credit, provided the relative is not the employee's dependent or child under the age of 19 at the close of the taxable year.

The new law also provides that the cost of employer-provided child care will not be included in the employee's gross income. That is, if the employer provides day care as a fringe benefit, the cost to the employer will not be taxable income for the employee. Employers received added incentives in the act to provide services through provisions for depreciation and other business expenses for tax write-offs.

Today, there is a growing awareness that quality child care in off-site group centers needs the support and interest of community and market place organizations. As a result, labor organizations, private business enterprises, public and private schools, colleges and universities, churches, and civic organizations are beginning to develop child care options for working mothers. The National Academy of Sciences' Panel on Work, Family and Community, which is a part of the National Research Council, conducted a study on the impact of changing patterns of labor force participation on the role of the workplace, community, and family in the socialization of children.

In 1978 the National Commission on Working Women organized a series of regional dialogues that elicited women's concerns about child care. Seeing the relationship between productivity and child care, NCWW joined forces with the National Manpower Institute (now the National Institute for Work and Learning) and the Women's Bureau in 1979 to hold a conference on community solutions to the problem. At the conference, persons representing a wide variety of child care arrangements—sponsors, funders, and supporters—were brought together with child care providers, brokers serving as catalysts in the community, business, labor, representatives of governmental agencies, congressional committees, foundations, media, advocacy organizations, consultation and research firms, and universities. It was found that, across the country, people are looking to their own communities to provide solutions in rural, urban, and suburban settings.[22]

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[19] "Child-Care Arrangements of Working Parents," Mary Jo Bane and others, *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1979, pp. 50-56, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[20] "Child-care Study Challenges Stereotype on Welfare," *The New York Times, January 20, 1981.*

[21] Maximum credits range from $720 for those with one dependent to $1,440 for two or more children, based on an adjusted gross income of $10,000 or less. The subsidy decreases with higher incomes to a range of $480 for one and $960 for two or more dependents, based on incomes of $28,000 and over.

[22] *Community Solutions for Child Care*, report of a conference sponsored by the Women's Bureau and the National Manpower Institute with cooperation of the National Commission on Working Women, August 1979, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

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NCWW also conducted a national survey of working women with the cooperation of national magazines and union publications which brought 150,000 responses. It highlighted the child care problems that 60 percent of women seeking employment anticipated.

Where community child care centers do not provide services that match the needs of parents, employers have sponsored or offered alternatives. In most cases employers and labor groups have supported centers that serve workers of one employer and allowed only limited enrollment of children from the community or children of employees in nearby industries. In some instances, labor groups or employers have cooperated by organizing a consortium to support a center for their employees.[23]

Women Who Maintain Families

Among the most striking changes that occurred during the 1970's was the sharp rise in the number of women who had the principal responsibility for the maintenance and welfare of their own families (see table I-16). The number of these families rose from 5.6 million in 1970 to 9.4 million in March 1981, up nearly 70 percent over the decade; 5.9 million had children under 18 years. The overall rise of women maintaining families—more than 3.8 million—was greater than that posted during the preceding two decades, 1950–70. These women are divorced (37 percent), and widowed (26 percent), followed by women separated from their husbands (20 percent), and those who have never been married (17 percent) (see table I-18).

The rise in the number of families maintained by women reflects both the rising incidence of marital breakup and the increasing numbers of never-married women assuming principal economic responsibility for their own families—usually their own young children. Over the decade, the number of divorced and never-married women maintaining families each more than doubled—divorced from 1.3 to 3.5 million, never married from 600,000 to 1.6 million. The increase in these groups is attributed largely to young women under 35 years of age, who accounted for more than half of the increase of female householders. Contributing to this growth also is the fact that more young women in the 1970's than in the past delayed marriage even if pregnant, or after childbirth they kept their babies rather than place them for adoption.[24]

The financial need in the absence of a husband or second earner in families maintained by women is reflected by the relatively high rate of labor force participation of these women. More than 5 million (61 percent) of the women maintaining families were working or looking for work in March 1981, compared with more than 50 percent of married women living with their husbands. Although female householders had the highest rates of labor force participation, the rate of growth in participation was greatest for married women with children, who

[23] *Employers and Child Care: Establishing Services Through the Workplace*, Pamphlet 23, January 1981, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

[24] *Labor Force Patterns of Single Women*, Allyson Sherman Grossman, Special Labor Force Report 228, and Monthly Labor Review, August 1979, pp. 46–49, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Also see "Single-Parent Families," Sandra Stencel, Editorial Research Reports, Vol. II, p. 666, September 10, 1976.

Table I-18

Women maintaining families, by age and marital status, March 1960, 1970, and 1981

Age and marital status	Number (in thousands)			Percent distribution		
	1960	1970	1981	1960	1970	1981
Age						
Total, 16 years and over	4,494	5,573	9,416	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 25	180	437	858	4.0	7.8	9.1
25 to 34	620	919	2,565	13.8	16.5	27.2
35 to 44	921	1,075	2,135	20.5	19.3	22.7
45 to 54	948	1,115	1,537	21.1	20.0	16.3
55 to 64	782	917	1,079	17.4	16.4	11.5
65 and over	1,043	1,115	1,240	23.2	20.0	13.2
Median age	50.5	48.2	41.0	—	—	—
Marital Status						
Total, women maintaining families	4,494	5,573	9,416	100.0	100.0	100.0
Never married	521	610	1,558	11.6	10.9	16.5
Married, husband absent	980	1,324	1,920	21.8	23.7	20.4
Divorced	750	1,258	3,462	16.7	22.5	36.7
Widowed	2,243	2,389	2,477	49.9	42.8	26.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

made the most striking movement into the labor force during the 1970's.

Women who have principal responsibility for maintaining their own families are generally poor. They are more likely than other families to have only one earner, and to have preschool children that restrict labor force activity. They are less likely than other householders to have completed high school, and thus less able to meet the increasing skill demands of the modern workplace. Low educational levels are associated with low labor force participation, high unemployment, and low pay. Yet, more than one-half of all these women are employed; however, they are overrepresented in occupations associated with higher unemployment rates. At 8.3 percent in 1979, their unemployment rate remained well above that for all women (6.8 percent). With recession and high inflation buffeting the economy in late 1979 through 1981 their unemployment rate rose to 9.9 percent in March 1981.

The higher unemployment rate associated with women who maintain families without the help of a second earner also underlines their greater than average incidence of poverty. Moreover, their earnings and income provide a vivid illustration of the earnings gap between men and women. The data in table I-12 show that, even in one earner families, women who maintain families earned considerably less than so-situated men. As a result, these women and their families continue to have a higher poverty rate than that of other families and male householders. In March 1981 about 35 percent of families maintained by women with no husband present were poor compared with 11 percent among their male counterparts and only 6 percent of married-couple families.[25]

Although the number of children in female householder families is increasing, the number of children per family was most likely to be one or two. More than 4 out of 5 women maintaining families had one or two children, while less than one-fifth had three or more children under age 18 living at home. The number of children in such families increased from 6.7 million in 1970 to 10.5 million in March 1981. Women in these one-parent families were far more likely to be in the labor force than the women householders without any children under 18 living at home (see table I-17). About two-thirds of the latter group were widows living with one or more relatives aged 18 and over in March 1979.[26]

Although more likely to work, the women with children under 18 had a considerably lower family income than women with no children at home. Nearly 45 percent of the female one-parent families with children under 18 years old had incomes below the poverty level in March 1981. A large proportion—45 percent—of these one-parent families with children were maintained by black women; their families included about 48 percent of all children living in poor families maintained by women. Where there were no children under 18 in families maintained by all women, about 13 percent of the total, but 24 percent of the black female householder families, lived below the poverty level.

See also the section on Women in Poverty, in chapter III, for more detail on the economic status of women who maintain families.

Studies show that children living in single-parent families often experience enduring socioeconomic effects such as tendencies toward future marital breakups, less formal education, and greater likelihood of juvenile delinquency. There is no consensus in this area, however.[27] Lack of longitudinal data sets, inadequate models of child development, and inadequate measures of the amount and quality of parent-child interactions all restrict the conclusions that can be drawn from these studies. Despite these problems, researchers agree that it is the low income of single-parent families that affects the eventual socioeconomic status of the children.[28] Yet, a new study exploring the association between having a first birth as a teenager and later maintaining a family found that early childbearing, whether the teenage mother is married or unmarried, is a good prediction of a woman later becoming "the head of her family."[29]

Displaced Homemakers

The number of women who could be classified as displaced homemakers was estimated at more than 4 million, or 7 out of every 100 women 22 to 64 years of age as defined in the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). The estimate is based on special tabulations from the March 1976 supplement to the Current Population Survey designed and funded by the Women's Bureau.

The displaced homemakers were mostly divorced, separated, or widowed women who were currently not in the work force and either had never worked or had last worked over 5 years before the survey. On the average, they were mature women. More than 80 percent were 40 years of age or more and 50 percent were 55 years and over. After many years of working in the home, these women are suddenly faced with the necessity of making a living in the paid labor market. (Also see the related

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[25] *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1981*, (Advance Report) Current Population Reports, Consumer Income, Series P-60, No. 134, tables 15 and 18, pp. 22-28. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

[26] "Marital and Family Patterns: An Update," *op. cit.*, and unpublished 1981 marital and family tabulations, *op. cit.*

[27] "Single-Parent Families," Beverly L. Johnson, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Paper presented at the Agricultural Outlook Conference in November 1979, Family Economics Review, Summer/Fall, 1980, pp. 22-27, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Family Economic Research Group.

[28] *Time of Transition: The Growth of Families Headed by Women*, Heather L. Ross and Isabel V. Sawhill, 1975, The Urban Institute, Washington, D.C.

[29] *Teenage Motherhood, Social and Economic Consequence—An Urban Institute Paper of Women and Family Policy*, Kristin A. Moore and others, 1979, The Urban Institute, Washington, D.C.

discussion on families maintained by women in the preceding section of this chapter.)

According to a Bureau of Labor Statistics publication, these women have completed fewer years of formal schooling than other women. Statistics for 1979 show that nearly half of the women who either never worked or who last looked for work 5 years ago were not high school graduates. Thus, a substantial number of displaced homemakers lack both current work experience and the educational requirements for today's job market.[30] As such, they are more likely to be poor. An unpublished survey of displaced homemaker programs, conducted by Displaced Homemakers Network, Inc., in 1979, found that 75 percent of these women earned less than $5,000 that year.[31]

The term displaced homemaker was first coined by Tish Sommers in 1975 when the National Alliance for Displaced Homemakers was founded in Oakland, California. This was the first national organization to focus on the special needs of the displaced homemaker. Sommers, a California based organizer and an advocate of older women, first described the displaced homemaker as a middle-aged woman "forcibly exiled" from her role as wife and mother and struggling to find a place in the current job market.

A mutual help group called Jobs for Older Women Action Project in Oakland, California, had much to do with the "displaced homemaker" programs that have changed public policy. Recognizing the need for national advocacy for enactment of legislation to address the problems of displaced homemakers, the group formed the Alliance for Displaced Homemakers. By the end of 1978, 28 States had passed some form of displaced homemaker legislation, and the term had been incorporated into the terminology of the Department of Labor, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (now Health and Human Services), and the Administration on Aging. That year, the revised Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) included special programs for displaced homemakers.[32]

In order to continue the nongovernmental initiative and to insure that these new programs are as effective as possible, a Displaced Homemakers Network, Inc., was organized, representing all the newly emerging programs for this constituency. The Network sponsored a national training conference in January 1980.

There are several hundred programs operated by women's groups and others in connection with resource centers, educational institutions, and employment agencies to prepare the displaced homemaker for work. A few examples are:

- Women in Transition, Philadelphia, Pa., provides a counseling service under a CETA grant for displaced homemakers, including instruction in survival skills and a referral service.
- Baltimore New Directions for Women, Inc. (BNDW) since 1972 has served as a resource center by offering free counseling for the unemployed and economically disadvantaged to help the women prepare for the labor market. Under contract to BNDW, the Center for Displaced Homemakers opened in 1976 specifically as a job readiness, peer support, and training facility for those qualifying as displaced homemakers who are forced to enter or reenter the job market.
- In New York City, a consortium of programs sponsored by several organizations serves displaced homemakers of various ethnic backgrounds. The organizations include the YWCA, National Council of Negro Women, Agudath Israel, and Sisters of the Good Shepherd.

Some of the problems that the Displaced Homemakers Network, Inc., copes with are:[33]

- Difficulties in adjusting to new status, including personal concept of self-worth, singleness, and reduction in income, which surface in feelings of inadequacy and strain displaced homemakers' capacity for coping.
- Changing lifestyle and need to identify and accept available public and private services.
- Economic problems which generally arise because, nationally, less than 14 percent of divorced women are awarded alimony, but fewer than 7 percent collect it regularly. In addition, about 46 percent of divorced mothers are awarded child support, but less than half of them receive it on a regular basis, regardless of State and Federal mandates.
- Finding a job, including new skill training in areas outside the home. Earlier skills are outdated and prospects of employment are at the minimum wage level or less. Many displaced homemakers are unaware of the job training options available to them. These options in 1980 included: The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA); State Department of Vocational Education; vocational-technical schools and community colleges; Federal Work Incentive Programs; union apprenticeship program; nonunion skills training or apprenticeships; private vocational schools; and Title XX

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[30] *Employment in Perspective: Working Women*, Fourth Quarter 1979, Report 584, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[31] *Voices for Women, 1980 Report of the President's Advisory Committee for Women*, pp. 92-95, U.S. Government Printing Office.

[32] *Employment Goals of the World Plan of Action: Developments and Issues in the United States, op. cit.*, pp. 45-46.

[33] "Displaced Homemakers: Critical Needs and Trends," Cynthia E. Marano and others. An article condensed from a paper presented at the Agricultural Outlook Conference in November 1979, *Family Economic Review: Summer/Fall*, 1980, pp. 17-21. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Family Economics Research Group.

sponsored senior citizen employment training programs.

- Problems of rural displaced homemakers, who although younger than their urban counterparts, have even more severe social than economic hardships. This arises because of the social stigma attached to divorced and separated women in rural areas.

Older Women—Labor Force Participation and Unemployment

The labor force participation and unemployment rates of women 40 years of age and over reflect three groups with differing labor force attachments. The *Age Discrimination in Employment Act* covers workers 40 years and over, while the *Older Americans Act* covers those 55 years and over.

About 7.7 million women in their forties were working or looking for work in 1981; another 3.5 million were 50 to 54 years of age. Together they accounted for nearly one-quarter (24 percent) of all women in the civilian labor force, and a disproportionately small share of female unemployment (15 percent). Their labor force participation rates were considerably higher than the average (52.2 percent) for women in 1981, ranging from a high of 67 percent to a low of 58 percent. Unemployment among these women decreased with age, in part, reflecting a movement to "not in the labor force" status. Nonetheless, unemployment rates among these workers were significantly lower than those of younger women, and substantially lower than the average female jobless rate of 7.9 percent in 1981, ranging from a high of 5.4 percent and a low of 4.2 percent. The unemployment rates for women between 20 and 39 years ranged from 11.2 percent to 5.9 percent.

At 55 to 64 years, about 5.0 million women were working or looking for work—1.8 million of these women were 60 to 64 years of age in 1981. These women make up about 10 percent of all women in the civilian labor force, a slightly smaller proportion than for similarly aged men. Their labor force participation rates dropped sharply, from 49.3 percent to 32.6 percent for each succeeding age group, 55 to 59 years and 60 to 64 years, respectively. Similarly, comparable jobless rates were 4.0 and 3.6 percent, respectively. Only 8.0 percent of women 65 years and over were in the labor force; their unemployment rate was 3.6 percent.

Race and Ethnic Origin of Women Workers

The social and cultural diversity among the various racial and ethnic groups is mirrored in the labor market experience of women. Historically, black women have been more likely to work than whites. However, during the 1970's the labor force participation rate for white women grew much more rapidly than for minority[34] women, and by the close of the decade there was little difference between their overall participation rates (about 54 and 52 percent, respectively, for minority and white women in 1981). The comparable rates at the onset of the decade were 50 percent for black and 43 percent for white women.

Among other ethnic groups, the lower labor force participation of Hispanic women more probably reflects their younger age distribution and thus lower educational attainment than the general population, rather than their traditional family roles. Among American Indians an even greater proportion of women are young, which is reflected in higher fertility rates than the general population. Similarly, these women have lower educational attainment, lower labor force participation, and are more likely to be unemployed than the general population. Asian American women, as a group, tend to have higher educational attainment, higher labor force participation, and a lower incidence of poverty than the general population.

Black Women

Black women made improvements in most socioeconomic areas during the 1970's, but they still are not as well off as their white counterparts. Black women are more likely than white women to be unemployed, to be overrepresented in low-paying jobs, to increasingly assume the role of maintaining a family with children to support, and to account for a larger proportion of the poor.[35]

In 1981 the population of black women reached 14.0 million, up 2.1 million or about 19 percent from 1970. About three-quarters of all black women resided in metropolitan areas, and more than half lived in central cities within metropolitan areas; only about 1 in 5 women lived in the suburbs of the metropolitan areas. In addition, black women were, on an average, younger than white women—26.2 years compared with 32.6 years in 1978. Moreover, only 9 percent of black women were over 65 years compared with 14 percent of white women. However, the proportion of elderly black women grew faster than that of white women—40 percent compared with 28 percent between 1970 and 1981 reflecting, in part, greater reductions in age-specific mortality rates.[36]

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[34] Black, American Indian, Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, and other persons except white. According to the 1970 Decennial Census, 89 percent of the group was identified as black.

[35] *A Statistical Portrait of Women in the United States: 1978.* Current Population Reports, Special Studies, Series P-23, No. 100, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

[36] Provisionary data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Population Division.

The life expectancy differential between black and white women also has narrowed since 1970, although black women still have a lower life expectancy than white women—72.6 years compared with 77.3 years in 1976. The life expectancy differential between black and white women narrowed by 1.5 years since 1970.

Black women of working age (16 years and over) numbered 10.1 million in 1981, up from 7.8 million at the outset of the decade. The continued movement of working-age black women into the labor force during the decade was in large part due to the continued upward trend in the overall labor force participation rate of adult black women. There has been only a small gain in labor force participation by teenage black women. Because of the sharp rise in working white women during the decade, the overall labor force participation rate of white women has just about caught up with that of black women.

Black women did not share in the tremendous employment growth over the decade to the same degree as the general population or other women who identified themselves as "other than white." This largely reflects the declining labor force position of young women, particularly teenagers (16–19 years old). This has been particularly evident since the 1973–1975 recession. The level of employment for all black and other nonwhite women workers reached 5.6 million in 1981, up nearly 1.3 million since 1976. However, although black women accounted for the overwhelming majority of women in the "other than white" group—89 percent—they accounted for proportionally less—about 59 percent—of the overall employment increase posted by "other than white" women since 1976 (see Table I-19).

Table I-19

Employment status of women, by race, ethnic group, 1976, 1980, and 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

	1981	1980	1976
Women, 16 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	46,696	45,487	38,983
Employed	43,000	42,117	35,615
Unemployed	3,696	3,370	3,369
Unemployment rate	7.9	7.4	8.6
Labor force participation rate	52.1	51.5	47.3
White women, 16 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	40,157	39,127	33,735
Employed	37,394	36,587	31,078
Unemployed	2,762	2,540	2,656
Unemployed rate	6.9	6.5	7.9
Labor force participation rate	51.9	51.2	46.9
Black women, 16 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	5,401	5,253	4,460
Employed	4,561	4,515	3,823
Unemployed	840	738	637
Unemployment rate	15.6	14.1	14.3
Labor force participation rate	53.5	53.2	49.9
Black and other minority women, 16 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	6,539	6,359	5,250
Employed	5,606	5,529	4,536
Unemployed	933	830	713
Unemployment rate	14.3	13.1	13.6
Labor force participation rate	53.6	53.6	50.2
All Hispanic women, 16 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	2,328	2,298	1,625
Employed	2,076	1,972	1,417
Unemployed	252	236	207
Unemployment rate	10.8	10.7	12.7
Labor force participation rate	48.5	47.8	44.3
All Hispanic women, 20 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	2,106	1,973	1,454
Employed	1,906	1,792	1,288
Unemployed	200	181	166
Unemployment rate	9.5	9.2	11.4
Labor force participation rate	49.9	48.9	44.6
Mexican women, 20 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	1,223	1,126	784
Employed	1,102	1,017	691
Unemployed	120	108	92
Unemployment rate	9.8	9.6	11.7
Labor force participation rate	50.1	49.1	45.4
Puerto Rican women, 20 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	208	207	165
Employed	186	181	145
Unemployed	21	26	19
Unemployment rate	10.2	12.6	12.2
Labor force participation rate	36.9	37.2	32.1
Cuban women, 20 years and over:			
Civilian labor force	186	170	153
Employed	172	160	139
Unemployed	15	11	15
Unemployment rate	8.0	6.5	10.2
Labor force participation rate	53.9	54.0	50.5

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

Nevertheless, with nearly 4.6 million black women employed and 840,000 unemployed and seeking work in 1981, the black female labor force edged up to 5.4 million, up by more than 700,000 from 1976.

Significantly, even the relatively small additions to the labor force among black women have largely resulted in additions to unemployment. At 15.6 percent in 1981, their unemployment rate was up from the 14.2 percent posted in 1976, reflecting the 1980–81 downturn in economic activity. Moreover, their unemployment was considerably higher than that for all women (7.9 percent) and minorities other than black (8.2 percent). In addition, to worsen economic conditions, the jobless rates for black women reflect the extremely high unemployment among black teenagers 16 to 19 years. The unemployment rate of young black teenage women was several times that of their white counterparts, 42.2 versus 14.0 percent at the end of 1981. For women 20 to 24 years old, the jobless rates were 26.4 percent among young black women compared with 9.1 percent among white women. Despite the obstacles to finding work, the number of teenage black women looking for work has been growing about three times faster than their population, which has been edging down in recent years. (Also see section on "Unemployed Women" in this chapter.)

Despite the unemployment situation of black women compared with white women, and for young black women particularly, there has been some improvement in the occupational situation of those who were employed, reflecting their strong and continued labor force experience and increasing educational attainment.

The proportion of black women in white-collar work increased sharply between 1972 and 1981 (from 38 to 51 percent), as many of the younger, better-educated women found jobs in clerical as well as professional and technical occupations. Over the same period, the proportion of black women in service occupations dropped from 48 to 31 percent, largely because of the dramatic drop of women in private household occupations—an area where many black women have historically found employment. These trends reflect the fact that younger, better-educated black women looked for and found higher-paying jobs.

During the 1970's, the median income of black women who worked year round full time approached income parity with their white counterparts. The annual income for year-round full-time (50 to 52 weeks) employed black women rose from $7,079 in 1970 to $11,438 in 1981; similar income for white women was $8,640 to $12,665 over the same period. However, both black and white women earn considerably less than men, and black men earn considerably less than white men. As a result, despite black women's near parity of income with white women, black family income ($13,267) in 1981 was considerably less than that of white families ($23,517). Moreover, although the earnings of black women account for a larger share of family income than the earnings of white women do of family income, black men working full time year round in 1981 earned ($14,984) substantially less than white men ($21,178). (Also see chapter III on income and earnings.)

The incidence of poverty is greater among black families than white families—about 31 percent compared with 9 percent in 1981. The sharp rise in families maintained by women with no husband present is at the root of the rise in poverty. Families maintained by women have become an increasing proportion of both black and white families in poverty; however, these families have become an overwhelming majority only among poor black families. At the beginning of the decade, 56 percent of all poor black families were maintained by women; by 1981 the proportion had grown to 70 percent. For the comparable group of white families, the proportions were 30 percent in 1970 and 39 percent in 1981.[37]

Of all black families (6.4 million) in 1981, women maintained 2.6 million families or 41 percent of all black families and accounted for 28 percent of all families maintained by women. Of all poor families maintained by women (3.3 million), black women maintained 1.4 million families or 42 percent of these families, in 1981.

Hispanic Women

Women of Hispanic origin numbered 6.6 million in March 1980. The largest specific Hispanic group was of Mexican origin (3.9 million) followed by women of Puerto Rican origin (985,000); the next largest group was of Central and South American origin (561,000); the smallest group was of Cuban origin (417,000); and the remaining 829,000 females were not classified as to national origin.[38] The socioeconomic positions of these women differ among themselves, and substantially from that of all other women, particularly in their educational attainment. According to the 1970 census, 96 percent of the Hispanic population was racially classified as white.

In 1981 about 750,000 families, or 23 percent of all Hispanic families, were maintained by women with no husband present. More than half of these families had incomes in 1980 below the poverty level, compared with about one-third of all families maintained by women. Most of the Hispanic families lived in metropolitan areas—48 percent in central cities and 35 percent outside. About 17 percent lived in nonmetropolitan areas in 1980. The proportion living in central cities was greatest among Puerto Rican families, about 75 percent, and

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[37] *Ibid*, p. 95 and *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1981* (Advance Report), *op. cit.*

[38] *Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States: March 1980* (Advance Report). Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 361, May 1981, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. (These statistics have not been benchmarked to the 1980 decennial census data, which reported an estimate of 7.3 million women of Spanish origin.)

lowest among Cuban families, 40 percent, reflecting both the geographic concentration of these women and the better economic situation of women of Cuban origin.

Hispanic women (as a group) lag behind women not of Hispanic origin in years of school completed, although younger Hispanic women are narrowing the gap. In 1980 about 44 percent of the women over 25 years of age had completed high school, compared with 70 percent of their white and 51 percent of their black counterparts. For each population group, the proportions were greater for the baby boom generation—those 25 to 34 years old.[39] In addition to differences by age, there are differences by ethnicity. Women of Cuban, and Central and South American origin completed more than 12 years of school compared with 9.7 and 9.6 years completed by women of Puerto Rican and Mexican origin. Non-Hispanic women completed more than 12.5 years of formal schooling, somewhat higher than that completed by Cuban origin women. Consequently, labor force participation (which is associated with educational attainment) was lower and unemployment was higher among Hispanic women than among women not of Hispanic origin.

Although the 1981 earnings of Hispanic women were lower ($10,917) than those of white women ($12,665) who also were employed at year round full time jobs, Hispanic women in professional occupations had median earnings not significantly different from other women—somewhat over $14,000 in 1979, the most recent year for comparable data by occupation. Hispanic workers in these jobs were more likely to be of Cuban origin. These women had the highest educational attainment among Hispanics, and thus more closely resembled women in the general population in their socioeconomic characteristics.

Women of Hispanic origin shared in the employment gains made by all women between 1976 and 1981, years for which comparable data are available (see table I-19). Adult women (20 years of age and over) of Mexican origin accounted for the largest number of adult Hispanic women working in 1981 (1.2 million), followed by women of Puerto Rican origin (208,000), and those of Cuban origin (186,000). Therefore, the overall employment situation for Hispanic women largely reflects that of women of Mexican origin. In addition to differences in the size of their female labor force, considerable variation among the major ethnic groups exists in virtually all employment related characteristics.

Among all adult women of Hispanic origin (20 years and over), nearly 50 percent participated in work activities in 1981—somewhat lower than the rate for all adult women (52 percent). The overall rate obscures differences in participation among the various Hispanic ethnic groups, and mainly reflects the rate for women of Mexican origin, when compared with the others. At 37 percent, women of Puerto Rican origin had the lowest labor force participation rate in 1981, compared with a high of 54 percent among women of Cuban origin, and 50 percent for women of Mexican origin. Probably of more significance than traditional family roles are the divergent age distributions which have a strong effect on labor force participation. Women of Puerto Rican origin are younger when compared with women of Cuban origin. Because of their youth they are more likely to have young children that prevent them from participating in the labor force.

Unemployment for Hispanic women moved down from 1975 recession highs but was still higher than that for all women and somewhat lower than that for nonwhite (largely black) women workers.

At 9.5 percent in 1981, joblessness among adult Hispanic women workers edged up from the pre-recession low of 8.9 percent in 1979.

Women of Hispanic origin were employed in blue-collar occupations to a greater extent than other women. Regardless of ethnicity, employed Hispanics were more concentrated in low paid, semiskilled occupations than the overall work force. Although the large percentage of Hispanic women employed in clerical positions is similar to the situation among all women, their heavy concentration in operative jobs—dressmakers, assemblers, machine operators and similar equipment—is strikingly unlike other women.

Minority Working Wives and Mothers—Black and Hispanic

The labor force participation rate for black married women, at about 60 percent in 1981, was up considerably since the mid-1970's, and was substantially above the comparable rate for white wives (50 percent). Reflecting the higher labor force participation rate of black wives, the proportion of black families with two earners or more during 1980 was higher than that for white or Hispanic families. Sixty-three percent of black married-couple families, compared with over 59 percent of white and Hispanic families, had more than one earner. Black married-couple families accounted for 53 percent of all black families, compared with 85 percent for white and 72 percent for Hispanic families in 1981. The proportion of black married-couple families is down sharply from 61 percent in 1975, a greater decline than among both white and Hispanic married-couple families.[40]

Married-couple families with multiple earners have a low incidence of poverty. For black husband-wife families with two earners, median family income was $22,375 in 1980 and $29,625 if there were three earners, higher than that of families with only one earner ($12,632).

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[39] *Population Profile of the United States: 1980, op. cit.*

[40] *Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force, March 1979, op. cit.*

Hispanic multiearner families had an average annual income of $19,788 and $28,580 for husband-wife families with two and three earners, respectively, 59 percent higher than husband-wife families with only one earner ($12,924). Thus, for black and Hispanic multiearner families, 4 percent were living below the poverty level compared with 1 percent of similar white families. However, as with the white population, the poverty rate was 4 times higher for families with only one earner and 8 to 9 times higher for those married couples with no earner in the home.

Black mothers are still more likely than white or Hispanic mothers to be in the labor force. However, the sharpest increase in participation during the 1970's was registered by white mothers. As a result, the difference in labor force participation rates between these groups has narrowed. From March 1975 to 1981, the rate for black mothers rose from 56 to 64 percent, compared with 46 to 57 percent of white mothers, and 40 to 47 percent among Hispanic mothers.

In married-couple families, a larger proportion of black children (62 percent) than white children (43 percent) had working mothers. However, when there was no father in the home, a higher proportion of white children (66 percent) than black children (57 percent) had mothers participating in labor force activities. Among Hispanic children, 42 percent of those in two-parent families had mothers in the labor force compared with 39 percent of those in families maintained by Hispanic women alone.

The presence of young children is associated with lower labor force participation for all women, regardless of their marital or family status. The lower rates of labor force activity in families where minority women provide the principal economic support reflects the greater than average presence of very young children (under 3 years of age) in their families. In addition, approximately 34 percent of the black families compared with 21 percent of the white families maintained by women had no earners in 1981.[41] Similar families of male householders, regardless of race-ethnic status, had a much smaller proportion of no earners (about 12 percent for both black and white men).[42] It may well be that male householders are not as likely to be maintaining a family with very young children.

Thus, the situation among female householders points not only to the higher incidence of poverty among minority (and nonminority) families, but also to differences by sex. In 1981 black and Hispanic families maintained by women with related children under 18 had a poverty rate of nearly 68 percent, compared with about 43 percent of similarly maintained white families.[43]

Table I-20

White, black, and Hispanic families, by type, March 1975–1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Race, Hispanic and origin, year	All families	Married-couple families[1]	Other families[2]		
			Maintained by men[1]	Maintained by women	
				Total	As percent of all families
White					
1975	49,440	43,050	1,182	5,208	10.5
1976	49,873	43,311	1,182	5,380	10.8
1977	50,083	43,397	1,219	5,467	10.9
1978	50,529	43,423	1,278	5,828	11.5
1981	53,038	44,878	1,611	6,550	12.4
Black					
1975	5,491	3,357	200	1,934	35.2
1976	5,585	3,352	229	2,004	35.9
1977	5,604	3,407	246	2,151	37.1
1978	5,806	3,260	269	2,277	39.2
1981	6,371	3,400	297	2,673	42.0
Hispanic					
1975	2,475	1,926	87	462	18.7
1976	2,499	1,896	81	522	20.9
1977	2,583	1,978	88	517	20.0
1978	2,764	2,104	99	581	20.3
1981	3,263	2,363	173	727	22.3

[1] Includes men in Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.
[2] Maintained by never-married, widowed, divorced, or separated persons.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

American Indian, Aleut, and Eskimo Women

According to the 1970 census, the American Indian population numbered 763,594, including 16,080 Alaskan Indians.[44] By adding to this figure 34,525 Aleuts and Eskimos of Alaska, the total American Indian population numbered 798,119.[45] Of this number, 405,107 were women, compared with 393,012 men. Population reports, from the 1980 census found 1,418,195 persons for

[41] *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1981* (Advance Report), *op. cit.*, table 18.
[42] Unpublished 1981 marital and family tabulations.
[43] *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States, op. cit.*, table 15, p. 23.

[44] The sources of data used for the information on black and Spanish-origin women in the work force do not include similar information on American Indian women. The information here is based on the 1970 census as reported in the following sources: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Subject Report "American Indians" 1970 Census of Population, PC(2)—1F; Supplementary Report, "Native Population of Alaska by Race, 1970," PC(51)-64; and U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "A Study of Selected Socioeconomic Characteristics of Ethnic Minorities Based on the 1970 Census," Vol. III; American Indians, HEW Pub. No. (OS) 75-122.
[45] *Federal Indian Law*, U.S. Department of the Interior, 1966. "The term 'Native of Alaska' has been defined to include members of the aboriginal races inhabiting Alaska at the time of its annexation to the United States, and their descendants of the whole or mixed blood. Important native groups are comprised of the Eskimos, which are distinct from but related to the American Indians, the kindred Aleuts, and the Indians." These three groups receive Federal services the same as all other American Indians. Because of the differentiation in the census between American Indians, Aleuts, and Eskimos, the same terms are used in this section.

the group—701,007 men and 717,188 women. Publications by the Bureau of the Census contain detailed national summary data.

The social and economic position of American Indian women in the United States presents a picture considerably different from that of women in the overall population. The status of American Indian women in most areas is significantly below that of all women. For example, in 1970, Indian women had less education, were more likely to be unemployed, and had lower incomes than women in the total population.

According to 1970 Decennial Census data, the total number of American Indian women enumerated in the United States was 388,000. The sex ratio (number of males per 100 females) was 96.7, a figure slightly higher than the national ratio of 94.8. The majority of American Indian women (55 percent) resided in rural areas of the United States; 28 percent lived on identified reservations.

The median age of American Indian women was 20.9 years in 1970, younger than other 1970 census tabulated race-ethnic groups; the median age for all women was 29.3 years. The younger age is reflected in high fertility rates and a higher proportion of never-married women compared with the total population. Moreover, about one-third more children were born to American Indian women than to all women in the population.

American Indian women were more likely to be separated or divorced (9 percent compared with 6 percent) but less likely to be widowed (10 percent compared with 12 percent) than all women. Eighteen percent of American Indian families in 1970 were maintained by women without husbands, compared with 11 percent of all families. About 66 percent of these families had children under the age of 18, of which about one-third were of preschool age—under 6 years. Fifty-six percent of American Indian families maintained by women were in poverty in 1969, higher than the one-third of all such families. Although earnings of all women were low, the median earnings in 1969 for all American Indian women were $3,198 compared with $4,962 for women of all races.

In 1970, among all American Indian women 16 years of age and over, 35 percent had graduated from high school. The median school years completed was 10.5. However, in the age group 25 to 34 years, 45 percent had completed high school; the median years of school completed was 11.5.

Between 1960 and 1970 the proportion of high school graduates increased from 13 to 23 percent among all rural American Indian women 14 years of age and over. Among urban American Indians, the increase went from 28 to 42 percent.

Among Eskimo and Aleut women 25 to 34 years of age, the median school years completed were 8.0 and 9.4, respectively. Of this age group, 19.7 percent of the Eskimo and 28.1 percent of the Aleut women were high school graduates. The proportions in this age group with 8 years of schooling or less were 68.1 percent of Eskimo and 46.3 percent of Aleut women.

Among all American Indians 14 to 17 years of age, 86 percent of the women and 88 percent of the men were enrolled in school. But in the age group 18 to 24, 21 and 26 percent, respectively, were in school. Only 4.4 percent of all American Indians (women and men) 25 to 34 years were enrolled in school.

The median income for all American Indian families was $5,832 in 1969. Twenty-two percent had incomes of $10,000 or more. Fifteen percent of the rural and 31 percent of the urban families were in this category. At the other end of the spectrum, 1 out of 6 urban families (11.5 percent) and 1 out of 3 rural families had incomes below $3,000.

Among all American Indian women heads of families, 6 percent received incomes of $10,000 or more—4 percent of the rural and 8 percent of the urban groups. The median income for women family heads was $3,198.

The family income of the Aleuts and Eskimos was 1.3 times that of rural American Indians nationally in 1969. The median income for Eskimo families was $4,809 and for Aleut families, $8,116. The average poverty threshold for an Alaskan nonfarm family of four was $3,743 in 1969. Thirty-six percent of the Aleut and Eskimo families had incomes under $4,000.

Of the 4,087 individual American Indians earning $15,000 or more, only 517 were women. With a median income of $1,697, American Indian women had the lowest income of any group in this country. The rural women had a 1969 median income of $1,356; urban women, $2,023.

Of the 233,266 American Indian women 16 years of age and over, 82,394, or 35.3 percent, were in the labor force. Within the 40-year period between 1930 and 1970, urbanization of American Indians increased from 10 to 45 percent. The socioeconomic characteristics of the rural and urban American Indian populations vary markedly. For example, the labor force participation rate of 29 percent for rural American Indian women in 1970 (56 percent for rural Indian men) was far lower than that of any other group in this country. On the other hand, the labor force participation rate of 42 percent for urban Indian women (72 percent for Indian men) was about the same as the national level of 41 percent for women (77 percent for men). Among Aleut and Eskimo women, it has been estimated that only 29 percent were in the labor force in 1970.

Among American Indian, Aleut, and Eskimo women, there was a heavy concentration of employed women in service work outside the home in 1970—26 percent for American Indian women and 34 percent for Aleut and Eskimo women. The second largest occupation group for these women was clerical work, with 25 percent of

American Indian and 26 percent of Aleut and Eskimo women so employed. In contrast, among all employed women in the United States, 35 percent were clerical workers and 17 percent were service workers outside the home in 1970. The third largest group of employed American Indian, Aleut, and Eskimo women worked as operatives, including transport—19 percent of American Indian women and 11 percent of Aleut and Eskimo women. Among all women in the United States, 14 percent were in this occupation group.

Smaller proportions of American Indian women than all women were in professional and technical work—American Indian, 11 percent; Aleut and Eskimo, 9 percent. Only 2.4 percent of American Indian women were managers and administrators but more than 5 percent of Aleut and Eskimo women were so employed, exceeding the percentage of all U.S. women in this group—3.6 percent in 1970.

Asian and Pacific Island Women

Immigration has been, and continues to be, a major factor affecting the demographic characteristics of the Asian population. Detailed data by nativity, year of immigration, age, and other characteristics are necessary for a complete statistical portrait of Asian women. Such data are limited, and there is almost no information reflecting the characteristics of immigrants since the 1970 Decennial Census. In addition to the census data, the publication, *Beyond Stereotypes and Statistics: Emergence of Asian and Pacific American Women,*[46] provides some valuable insight and data from the 1975 Survey of Income and Education and from annual reports of the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service.

Since 1970 Asian women have accounted for the majority of Asian and Pacific Island immigrants to the United States. As a group, they are urban dwellers, tend to have higher educational attainment, higher labor force participation, a smaller proportion of families maintained by women with no husband, and a lower incidence of poverty than the U.S. population.

The three largest groups of Asian women identified in the 1970 census include: Japanese (317,000), Chinese (205,000), and Filipino[47] (154,000).

The sex ratio (number of males per 100 females) for each of these groups differs—ranging from 85.7 for Japanese to 110.7 for Chinese and 119.3 for Filipinos, compared to a national ratio of 94.8.[48] The ratios reflect the fact that Asian immigrants to the United States in the 1900's were largely male laborers and, except for Japanese, Asian men generally were not allowed to bring in their wives. As a result men outnumbered women in every census until 1960. At that time, Japanese women outnumbered men, largely reflecting the number of Japanese women who married Americans during the occupation of Japan after World War II. The War Bride's Act of 1946 increased immigration of Chinese women, and more recently the 1965 Immigration Act markedly increased the proportion of Asian women, but men still outnumbered women in the Chinese and Filipino populations.

While Asian and Pacific Americans have been established in the United States for several generations, most of the population consists of relatively recent arrivals. In 1976, 60 percent of the women in these communities had arrived since 1970, according to the publication *Beyond Stereotypes,* cited earlier. Besides a relaxation of exclusionary immigration laws since 1965, the marriage of Pan Asian women to American servicemen is the second major cause of increased immigration: The National Committee Concerned with Asian Wives of U.S. Servicemen estimates that 200,000 Asian-born wives of U.S. servicemen reside in the United States.

The 1970 census provided other demographic data on women of Asian origin. Median age varied with immigration history. Japanese women had the oldest median age in 1970—34.3 years compared with 25.8 years for Chinese women and 24.5 years for Filipino women. The two latter groups had a greater share of the younger and more recent immigrants. Moreover, Filipino women were more likely to have young children. According to *Beyond Stereotypes,* 60 percent of all Korean and Filipino, and over 50 percent of all Chinese immigrants were women who entered the United States since 1970.

The 1970 census found that Asian women were more likely to live in urban areas than were other women in the population. About 97 percent of Chinese women, 89 percent of Japanese women, and 88 percent of Filipino women live in urban areas, compared with 74 percent of all women.

Marital and family characteristics also differ among Asian women. Chinese and Filipino women were more likely to be never-married than women in the general population—31 percent compared with 23 percent; Japanese women, however, reflected the general population. Japanese and Chinese women had fewer children than Filipino women, who had a higher rate of children than the national average in the age groups of 15 to 24 and 35 to 44. A relatively smaller proportion of Asian women than the general population maintained families with no husband present, particularly Chinese (6.7 percent) and Filipino (8.6 percent) women. Moreover, Chinese women who were the prime support of families were less likely to have children under 18 years of age.

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[46] *Beyond Stereotypes and Statistics: Emergence of Asian and Pacific American Women.* Juanita Tamayo Lott and Canta Pian, Organization of Pan Asian American Women, 1979.

[47] The contemporary spelling for a person of Philippine ancestry is Pilipino. There is no F sound or letter in the language.

[48] *A Statistical Portrait of Women in the United States: 1978, op. cit., pp. 119-122.*

Asian women were more likely to graduate from high school and college than were other women. The proportions range from 55 percent of Chinese women to 64 percent of Filipino and 67 percent of Japanese women, compared with 53 percent of all U.S. women. The proportion of Asian women completing 4 years or more of college ranged from 11 percent for Japanese to 31 percent for Filipino women; only 8 percent of all women were in this category in 1970. However, among Pan-Asian subpopulation groups, for example, wives of U.S. servicemen and Indo-Chinese refugees, the median educational level was up to only the eighth grade in 1975, according to *Beyond Stereotypes*.

There is a direct correlation between higher educational attainment and higher labor force participation, regardless of sex, age, and marital status. Asian women reflect this correlation, which is aided by the strong work ethic that is part of their cultural background. Labor force participation is highest among adult Pan-Asian women, reaching 64 percent compared with 45 percent of white women and 51 percent of black women in 1975. *Beyond Stereotypes* cites that about one-quarter of the employed Asian and Pacific women work in professional occupations; another one-third work in clerical and sales occupations; while the remainder work in semi- and low-skilled operative and service occupations, waitresses, maids, and sewing machine operator jobs.

Like other women, the median income of Asian women lags behind that of men, ranging from $2,640 for Chinese women to $3,480 for Filipino women in 1970. The proportions with income over $10,000 were about 5 percent for each of the three major groups. The income disparity between Asian women and men was the smallest for Filipino women and the greatest for Japanese women. Data for 1970 show that the gap between the income of women a men gets larger with higher educational attainment. *Beyond Stereotypes* found that in 1970 the median income of college-educated white men was approximately $12,000; Pan-Asian women with similar education earned a median of only $5,500.

Work Patterns of Women

Work Experience

More than 117 million persons were employed at some time during 1981, over 27 million more than in 1968; over 16 million of this increase occurred among year-round workers. Women accounted for about 58 percent of the total increase and for about 67 percent of the increase among year-round workers (see table I-21).

In March of each year, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of the Census, through supplementary questions in the Current Population Survey, obtain information on work experience for the previous calendar year. Many persons, particularly women, work only part of the year and may not be working during the survey week of some or all of the monthly CPS surveys. In the annual work experience survey, information is reported on the cumulative number of weeks these women and men were employed and/or unemployed over the entire year. The work experience count is, therefore, larger than both the monthly count (which represents the survey week) and an average of the 12 monthly counts of the population (used elsewhere in this Handbook) because the count is over the entire year rather than just the survey week. The data, therefore, include more part-year intermittent workers as well as disproportionately more new labor force entrants, retirees, and other labor force "leavers" who have been in and out of the labor force part of the year.

The work experience count of women who worked sometime in 1981 was 52.0 million, 9.0 million more than the annual average count of employed women for that year. The difference between the two measures for men, most of whom work year round, was somewhat smaller—7.3 million.

It has become increasingly clear that working women are not casual labor market participants. Considering the fact that the majority have household and child care responsibilities, their job continuity during the year—work experience—is impressive. More than two-thirds of all working women were employed at least 40 weeks in 1981, and the proportion who worked all year (50 to 52 weeks) at full time jobs steadily rose to a record high of 45 percent. Similarly, among women employed part time the proportion working 50 to 52 weeks showed the greatest gains, while those working part year declined (see table I-22). The expansion in year-round employment was greatest among women of ages 25 to 34 years (the "baby boom" cohort); these women have established a new pattern of labor force participation for their age group. Today they are marrying later, often after several years in the labor market, and returning to work following the birth of children much sooner than did their mothers.

In contrast to the upward trend in year-round employment among women, the proportion of men with such steady work declined by 4 percentage points (73 to 69 percent) and dropped sharply among white and black men 25 to 34 years old between 1968 and 1981. Given that men in this age group have traditionally had higher labor force participation rates, the declines in year-round employment may indicate some generational crowding with respect to the so-called "good" jobs which offer steady employment.

Comparisons between the work experience of minority and white workers indicate the following: Since the early 1970's, black women have in general been more likely to work all year full time than white women. However, black women under age 25 have consistently been

Table I-21

Persons who worked during the year and who worked full time and part time 50 to 52 weeks, by sex, age, and occupation, 1968 and 1981

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

(Numbers in thousands)

Category	Women						Men					
	Worked during the year		Worked 50 to 52 weeks				Worked during the year		Worked 50 to 52 weeks			
			Number		Percent of total who worked				Number		Percent of total who worked	
	1968	1981	1968	1981	1968	1981	1968	1981	1968	1981	1968	1981
Total	36,819	52,025	18,803	29,673	50.9	57.0	53,312	64,769	39,251	44,752	73.6	69.1
Age												
16 to 19 years	4,177	4,567	765	1,034	18.3	22.6	5,221	5,259	1,413	1,343	27.1	25.5
20 to 24 years	5,791	8,312	2,398	3,866	41.4	46.5	5,698	9,084	2,954	4,419	51.8	48.7
25 to 34 years	6,710	14,386	3,221	8,551	48.0	59.4	10,962	17,681	9,076	13,003	82.8	73.6
35 to 44 years	6,860	10,121	3,918	6,427	57.1	63.5	10,704	12,573	9,287	10,281	86.8	81.8
45 to 54 years	7,127	7,625	4,639	5,253	65.1	68.9	10,463	9,821	8,927	8,165	85.3	83.1
55 to 64 years	4,762	5,445	3,115	3,750	65.4	68.9	7,461	7,808	5,945	6,148	79.7	78.7
65 years and over	1,491	1,569	747	794	50.1	50.6	2,803	2,543	1,649	1,392	58.8	54.8
Occupation												
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	4,845	8,376	2,770	4,721	57.2	56.4	7,024	9,917	5,844	7,736	83.2	78.0
Managers and administrators (except farm)	1,424	3,507	1,062	2,359	74.6	67.3	6,759	8,761	6,092	7,474	90.1	85.3
Sales workers	2,696	3,714	1,116	1,111	41.4	29.9	2,868	3,853	2,219	2,684	77.4	69.7
Clerical and kindred workers	12,104	17,443	6,966	8,903	57.6	51.0	3,780	4,044	2,847	2,622	75.3	64.8
Craft and kindred workers	382	948	242	506	63.4	53.4	10,529	13,378	7,981	8,785	75.8	65.7
Operatives (except transport)	5,366	5,214	2,583	2,375	48.1	45.6	8,103	7,004	5,530	4,038	68.2	57.7
Transport equipment operatives	100	368	26	106	26.0	28.8	2,671	3,577	1,985	2,177	74.3	60.9
Laborers (except farm)	206	709	85	262	41.3	37.0	4,314	5,330	1,955	1,965	45.3	36.9
Private household workers	2,365	1,340	929	175	39.3	13.1	65	40	33	10	(1)	(1)
Service workers except private household	6,246	9,768	2,536	2,822	40.6	28.9	3,871	6,315	2,439	2,845	63.0	45.1
Farmers and Farm managers	1,184	638	408	146	34.5	22.9	3,328	2,548	2,326	1,471	69.9	57.7

(1) Base less than 75,000

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-22

Work experience of women and men, 1960, 1970, and 1981

Work experience	Women			Men		
	1960[1]	1970	1981	1960[1]	1970	1981
Total: Number (in thousands)	65,176	73,657	90,436	59,208	65,296	81,231
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Worked during the year	46.9	52.5	57.5	84.5	84.1	79.7
Did not work during the year	53.1	47.5	42.5	15.5	15.9	20.3
Worked during the year:						
Number	30,585	38,704	52,025	50,033	54,919	64,769
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Worked at full-time jobs[2]	67.6	67.8	67.0	86.9	87.6	86.2
40 to 52 weeks	44.6	47.3	51.5	73.5	74.0	72.2
50 to 52 weeks	36.9	40.7	45.1	63.9	66.1	64.5
27 to 39 weeks	6.9	6.2	5.3	5.6	5.2	5.1
1 to 26 weeks	16.0	14.3	10.2	7.7	8.4	8.8
Worked at part-time jobs[3]	32.4	32.1	33.0	13.1	12.4	13.8
40 to 52 weeks	13.2	13.5	16.2	5.7	5.6	6.1
50 to 52 weeks	10.0	10.0	11.9	4.5	4.4	4.5
27 to 39 weeks	3.4	4.0	4.4	1.3	1.4	1.6
1 to 26 weeks	15.8	14.6	12.4	6.1	5.3	6.1

[1] Data include 14- and 15-year-olds.
[2] Usually worked 35 hours or more a week in a majority of weeks worked.
[3] Usually worked less than 35 hours a week in a majority of weeks worked.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

less likely to work all year than white women in that age group, and the difference in proportions increased substantially over the decade.[49]

One reason for this trend is that more black than white teenagers left school before graduating, and therefore lacked a high school diploma, a minimum qualification for many steady year-round jobs. Also, among young women in the labor force, a higher percentage of blacks than whites had children under age 6. By ages 25 to 34, the proportions of both white and black women with young children were about the same. Similarly, the aggregate statistics obscure the sharp decline in year-round work among black men under age 25, in contrast to little change among young white men.

Reasons for the deterioration in the employment situation of young blacks have been explored in other reports with reference to their higher school dropout rate, their lack of vocational training, the scarcity of jobs in the inner city, and a range of socioeconomic factors which influence behavior in the labor market.[50] During the past 25 years, the employment situation of young blacks has continued to deteriorate even in times of general economic improvements.[51]

Full-Time and Part-Time Workers

In addition to measuring work activity during the year, the Bureau of Labor Statistics also publishes monthly data which refer to the number of hours worked by persons who are employed in nonagricultural industries and who work one or more paid hours during the reference week. The workers are classified as to their full-time or part-time status. Part-time workers are defined as those who work less than 35 hours a week, either on voluntary part time or part time for economic reasons. The latter group includes slack work, material shortages, repairs to plant or equipment, start or termination of a job during the week, and inability to find full time work.

Today, as in the past, most working women are on full-time work schedules. Among the 39.5 million women at work in nonagricultural industries in 1981, 30.7 million were on full-time schedules (including persons who usually work full-time but did not during the survey week due to noneconomic reasons); 8.8 million women worked part time for voluntary reasons; and 2.4 million worked part time for economic reasons. Thus,

[49] *Work Experience of the Population in 1978*, Anne McDougall Young, Special Labor Force Report 236 and *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1980 pp. 43–46, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Also see "One in Five Persons in Labor Force Experienced Some Unemployment in 1981," USDL: 82-255 (News release), July 20, 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[50] *Work Experience of the Population in 1978, op. cit.*, p. 45. Also see "Young and Marginal: An Overview of Youth Employment," Norman Bowers, *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1979, pp. 4–18, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; "Background and Training Needs of Persistently Unemployed Negroes." Herbert C. Beacham, *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education*, Winter 1971, pp. 4–11; "Hardcore Personality and Industrial Illness and Accidents," *Industrial Medicine*, Vol. 39, No. 4, April 1970, pp. 33–37, "Young, Black and Unemployed." *The New York Times*, March 11–14, 1979.

[51] For more detail see, "The Labor-Market Experience of Black Youth, 1954–78," Morris J. Newman, *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1979, pp. 19–27.

more than 7 out of 10 employed women worked full time. Those who worked part time largely did so voluntarily—80 percent of all women who worked part time. The remaining 20 percent who worked part time, did so for economic reasons or involuntarily.

Of all women at work in 1981, 6 percent were on part-time schedules for economic reasons, compared with 4 percent of men. The proportion of women on voluntary part time (22 percent) was 3 times as great as the proportion of men (7 percent). The work done by young women in their teens, particularly those under 18, usually must be done around their school schedules, and is much more likely to be voluntary part time (77 percent for those 16 and 17 years) than the work of other women (see table I-23). Only among older women, 65 years of age and over, did the proportion of those on voluntary part time work (55 percent) approximate the high part time rate of teenagers.

Consistent with the age data, younger single women workers were more likely to work on a voluntary part-time basis (26 percent) than older married women with husbands present (24 percent). Married women were, however, substantially more likely than the "other" marital group of women—widowed, divorced, and separated (13 percent)—to work part time voluntarily.

Except for married women, there has been some edging down in the proportion of women wanting voluntary part-time work since 1970. This trend reflects the movement of younger women, particularly teenagers, out of voluntary part-time work. The somewhat older "baby boom" generation posted an increase in full-time work, although an increasing proportion had to settle for involuntary part time (part time for economic reasons). The strong increase in involuntary part-time work reflects the job squeeze on the highly populated 25-34 age group—prime "baby boom" cohort. Moreover, since 1970 there have been virtually no changes in the overall proportion of women working full time (7 out of 10).

Opportunities for part-time work continue to expand as firms increasingly use part-time employees. Of course, businesses with peak work periods—either certain hours each day or certain days each week—have long hired part-time workers to perform functions such as selling clothes and serving meals. Alternative work plans include night shifts, "mother's hours," unpaid time off, job sharing, temporary work, and flexible self-employment schedules. Moreover, many women work at jobs where a normal "full-time" work week is less than 35 hours.[52]

Women who work part time by choice embody many diverse personal characteristics. A general profile would likely reveal women who are married to a full-time worker, have children who are at least of school age, are

[52] For a detailed discussion see "A Profile of Women on Part-Time Schedules," Carol Leon and Robert W. Bednarzik, *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1978, pp. 3-12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-23

Women at work in nonagricultural industries, by full- and part-time[1] status and selected characteristics, annual averages, 1981

(Women 16 years of age and over)

	Number of women (in thousands)	Percent distribution of women at work			
		Total	Full time	Voluntary part time	Part time for economic reasons[2]
Total	39,525	100.0	71.6	22.3	6.1
Age:					
16 and 17 years	1,260	100.0	13.8	76.5	9.7
18 and 19 years	1,968	100.0	50.4	36.9	12.7
20 to 24 years	6,238	100.0	74.8	17.6	7.6
25 to 44 years	18,797	100.0	76.6	18.2	5.2
45 to 64 years	10,264	100.0	74.6	20.1	5.4
65 years and over	998	100.0	40.4	54.7	4.9
Marital status:					
Married (husband present)	21,631	100.0	70.8	24.0	5.2
Single (never married)	10,075	100.0	66.6	25.6	7.8
Other[3]	7,819	100.0	80.0	13.5	6.5

[1] Working 35 hours or more a week and/or working 1 to 34 hours for noneconomic reasons and usually working full time.
[2] Includes slack work, material shortages, repairs to equipment, start or termination of work during the week, and inability to find full-time work.
[3] Widowed, divorced, or separated.
Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, table 35, p. 151, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

high school graduates, and are employed in a white-collar occupation—probably performing clerical duties or selling.

Flexitime and Part-Time Work Schedules

Alternative work patterns—part-time work, flexible work schedules, and shared jobs—are important to many women who have both work and home responsibilities such as child care. These alternatives to the regular workday or job structure also are valued by certain handicapped persons, older workers, and students. As yet the use of alternative work schedules is not wide-spread, although a number of major U.S. firms have adopted or are experimenting with some aspect of these different approaches. A 1979 survey for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare showed that 17 percent of the responding firms, which employed 212,256 workers, had adopted part-time options policies.[53] A 1977 American Management Association survey estimated that 12.8 percent of all private sector organizations nationwide use flexitime.

Multiple Jobholders

The most important change in the multiple jobholding work force during the 1970's was the growing proportion and number of women who entered its ranks. Among men the rate of "moonlighting" declined over the decade although the number remained essentially unchanged. Despite some fluctuations, the number of dual jobholders grew at about the same rate as the total work force over the period. Thus, there was a dramatic increase in the number of women holding a second job. Moreover, the increase for women who are the primary or principal support of their own families was especially noteworthy.

About 1.5 million women were employed at two or more jobs in May 1980. These dual jobholders represented 3.8 percent of all employed women and accounted for one-third of all "moonlighters" which is double their share in 1969. The number of "moonlighting" men was 3.2 million, about unchanged over the decade, representing 5.8 percent of all employed men in May 1980, compared with 6.9 percent in 1969. In recent years, the decline in the proportion of men working dual jobs has remained about unchanged. These changes are consistent with the increased proportion of women in the total work force. Further, the growth in the number of multiearner families may have diminished the economic incentive for some husbands to hold more than one job. In addition, while total hours by dual jobholding women have been rising for several years, half of all women working two jobs continue to hold two part-time jobs.[54]

Dual jobholding varied with age and by marital status (see table I-24). The rate of dual jobholding for women was highest among women 25 to 34 years old (4.1 percent) followed by those 20 to 24 years (4.1 percent) and those 35 to 44 years (3.9 percent) in 1980. With increasing age, multiple jobholding declines and drops significantly among female workers 55 years of age or more.

Marital status, historically, has been a factor in the decision to moonlight. The highest rates were exhibited by married men, especially those with two or more children, and the lowest among married women. Although that general relationship continues, the rates for married men declined and those for married women increased between May 1969 and 1980. Among employed women the dual jobholding rate was lower for married women living with their husbands (3.4 percent) than for single never-married women (3.9 percent) or other marital status women—separated, divorced, or widowed—4.6 percent. These data reflect the rise in the number of women who are the sole support of themselves and/or their own families.

While the reported incidence of multiple jobholding has been lower for black than for white workers, the difference has grown considerably in recent years. Dual jobholding among black women remained virtually unchanged over the decade, while that of white women increased sharply. However, between 1979 and 1980, there was a sharp increase in multiple jobholding by black women—2.0 to 2.6 percent. Nonetheless, black women were generally less likely than white women to hold more than one job, and they were more likely to work full-time on at least one job. Among men, the dual jobholding rate for black men declined more rapidly than for white men.[55]

This distribution of reasons for working more than one job has shown few year-to-year changes since 1974, the first period for which comparable data are available. About 34 percent of the women, compared with 29 percent of the men, stated "meeting regular expenses" as the main reason for holding two or more jobs during the survey week in 1979. In 1974 the proportions were reversed, 33 percent of the men and 30 percent of the women reported meeting regular expenses as the reason for moonlighting.

Black workers, especially women, were more likely than white workers to report economic reasons as their prime motivation for working more than one job. Almost three-fifths of the black women and one-half of the

[53] "Alternative Work Policies in Private Firms," Lois F. Copperman, *The Personnel Administrator*, October 1979.

[54] *Women's Share of Moonlighting Nearly Doubles During 1969–79*, Edward S. Sekscenski, Special Labor Force Report 239 and *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1980, pp. 36–39. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. "Workers on Long Schedules Single and Multiple Jobholders." Daniel Taylor and Edward S. Sekscenski, *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1982, pp. 47–53. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[55] *Ibid.*

Table I-24

Personal characteristics of persons with two jobs or more, May 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic	Both sexes			Men			Women		
	Total employed	Multiple jobholders		Total employed	Multiple jobholders		Total employed	Multiple jobholders	
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
Age									
Total, 16 years and over	96,809	4,759	4.9	55,782	3,210	5.8	41,027	1,549	3.8
16 and 17 years	2,900	92	3.2	1,609	53	3.3	1,291	39	3.0
18 and 19 years	4,434	169	3.8	2,321	95	4.1	2,113	73	3.5
20 to 24 years	13,509	640	4.7	7,236	382	5.3	6,273	258	4.1
25 to 34 years	26,058	1,450	5.6	15,129	943	6.2	10,930	507	4.6
35 to 44 years	19,318	1,132	5.9	11,075	813	7.3	8,243	320	3.9
45 to 54 years	16,220	797	4.9	9,606	564	5.9	6,614	233	3.5
55 to 64 years	11,417	414	3.6	6,992	307	4.4	4,424	107	2.4
65 years and over	2,954	65	2.2	1,815	52	2.9	1,139	13	1.1
Marital status									
Single	23,123	1,015	4.4	13,031	616	4.7	10,092	398	3.9
Married, spouse present	61,121	3,142	5.1	38,080	2,356	6.2	23,041	786	3.4
Other marital status	12,565	602	4.8	4,671	237	5.1	7,894	364	4.6
Race and Hispanic origin									
White	85,955	4,401	5.1	50,172	2,990	6.0	35,783	1,410	3.9
Black	9,116	290	3.2	4,706	176	3.7	4,409	114	2.6
Hispanic origin[1]	4,985	147	3.0	3,043	104	3.4	1,942	43	2.2

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race; hence, their numbers are included in the data for whites and blacks.

Source: "Workers on Long Schedules: Single and Multiple Jobholders," *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1982, pp. 47-53, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

black men reported meeting regular expenses or paying off debts as their main reason for dual jobholding in May 1980. White women and men reported these reasons about 40 percent of the time. A larger proportion of men than women in May 1979 said "saving for the future" was their main reason for holding more than one job. More older workers than younger ones offered "enjoying the work" on their second job as the main reason. More younger workers cited "paying off debts." The proportion of women working a second job "to get experience" increased in almost every age group during the 1974–80 period. More than 6 percent of the women and 8 percent of the men reported working two jobs in order to gain experience to meet the skill requirement of the second job, an indication of preparation for a career change.[56]

Job Tenure[57]

Job tenure is defined as the length of time an employee has worked steadily for the same employer, though not necessarily in the same occupation. Since 1968 there has been a gradual decline in median job tenure. The decline reflects two basic trends that have been evident for 10 or 15 years; the large flow into the work force of youths and women many of whom start at the bottom as new entrants or reentrants, and the trend toward earlier retirement, which removes some of the workers with the longest tenure. Relatively high unemployment in recent years also has been a contributing factor.

Many factors determine the length of time a person works continuously for the same employer. Among the most important are seasonal fluctuations, economic developments, and demographic characteristics. Seasonal fluctuations in some industries, such as construction and retail trade, may prevent some workers from gaining even 1 year of continuous employment. Similarly, resort employees or migrant farm workers may have several employers during the course of a year. Others, especially self-employed professionals and some other highly skilled workers, tend to remain employed at the same job for a relatively longer time, due partly to the large investment in capital, training, and the education their jobs require.

Many persons, especially those under age 25, voluntarily shift from one employer to another as they seek work they prefer. Older workers are more likely to remain with the same employer longer, especially if their

[56] *Ibid.*

[57] *Job Tenure Declines as Work Force Changes*, Edward S. Sekscenski, Special Labor Force Report 235 and *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1979, pp. 48–50, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table I-25

Median years on current job, by sex, age, race and Hispanic origin, January 1978

Age	All Workers			White		Black		Hispanic origin	
	Both sexes	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Total 16 years and over	3.6	4.5	2.6	4.6	2.6	3.7	3.6	2.7	1.6
16 to 24 years	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
25 to 34 years	2.6	2.7	1.6	2.7	1.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	1.6
35 to 44 years	5.0	6.9	3.6	6.9	2.7	6.7	5.0	5.7	2.6
45 to 54 years	8.3	11.0	5.9	11.3	5.8	9.4	7.9	6.0	4.6
55 to 64 years	11.0	14.6	8.5	14.8	8.4	13.0	9.2	9.3	6.9
65 and over	11.0	13.5	8.4	14.1	8.3	10.9	8.7	(1)	(1)

(1) Median not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: *Multiple Jobholders in May 1979*, Special Labor Force Report 239, and *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

earnings reflect longevity increases or they have accumulated pension or seniority rights. (Job tenure data is analyzed and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on a periodic basis.)

Average job tenure can be linked directly to age, reflecting the fact that young workers under 25 years of age change jobs more frequently than older workers. In January 1978 (most recent date), average job tenure for women was 2.6 years and for men 4.5 years (see table I-25). The lower duration for women is a result of the large proportion of women under age 25 and the tendency of many women to leave the work force at least once during their working lives due to home responsibilities.

Among men under 25, job tenure also is low—under 1 year—but the gap between women and men widens after age 25 years. In the 55-to-64 year old age group, the gap between male and female job tenure increased to 6.1 years in 1978. Nonetheless, over the past decade, the average tenure of women 65 to 69 has decreased from 10.5 to 7.5 years, particularly because many of that small group of women with long work histories are now obtaining retirement benefits, leaving a larger proportion of women with shorter tenure.

Average tenure of women workers varies with their marital status as well as with age. In every age group from 25 to 64 years, single women (never-married) had been on the same job longer than either married women or those who were widowed, divorced, or separated (see table I-26). However, the larger proportions of young women—under 25 years—keep the overall average for singles lower than for other marital groups.

Unemployed Women

Concern over unemployment among women is a manifestation of the marked increase in the size of the female labor force coupled with a worsening in their share of unemployment and rate as compared with that of men, particularly during the late 1960's. In contrast to men, the growth in women's share of unemployment was larger than their share of the labor force (see the tabulation below). In 1950 women accounted for 30 percent of the civilian labor force and 32 percent of the unemployed. By 1970 women accounted for 38 percent of the civilian labor force but 45 percent of the unemployed. Since then their share of the work force has continued to increase, reaching 43 percent in 1981, but the female share of unemployment outpaced their labor force share accounting for 45 percent in 1981. The economic slowdown of 1980 and 1981 saw no reduction in their share of employment as the occupations and industries associated with the male work force began to feel the effect of the recession. The strong growth in male unemployment because of recessionary pressures during 1980 and 1981 is reflected in a slowdown in the female share of unemployment during the period. Nonetheless, gains to female unemployment proportionately outpaced gains to employment, which had characterized the labor force activity of women during the 1970's and early 1980's.

Table I-26

Median years on current job of women, by marital status and age, January 1978

Age	Single	Married, spouse present	Other marital status[1]
Total	1.5	3.5	3.6
16 to 24 years	0.6	0.9	0.7
25 to 34 years	2.6	1.6	1.6
35 to 44 years	5.7	3.5	3.6
45 to 54 years	10.7	5.8	5.8
55 to 64 years	14.6	8.6	7.8
65 years and over	8.5	9.7	8.1

[1] Includes widowed, divorced, and separated.

Source: *Multiple Jobholders in May 1979*, Special Labor Force Report 239, and *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Civilian labor force	Total	Women	Women as a percent of total
	(Numbers in thousands)		
1950	62,208	43,819	29.6
1960	92,613	36,998	39.9
1965	74,455	26,200	35.2
1970	82,711	31,543	38.1
1975	93,775	37,475	40.0
1980	106,940	45,487	42.5
1981	108,670	46,696	43.0
Unemployment			
1950	3,288	1,049	31.9
1960	3,852	1,366	35.5
1965	3,366	1,452	43.1
1970	4,093	1,855	45.3
1975	7,929	3,486	44.0
1980	7,537	3,370	44.1
1981	8,273	3,696	44.7

About 3.7 million women were unemployed in 1981, an increase of 1.8 million since 1970. The unemployment rate for women, which had climbed from 5.9 percent in 1970 to a record high of 9.3 percent during the 1973–75 recession—May 1975—dropped to 6.8 percent in 1979. As a new economic slowdown worsened during 1980 and 1981, the unemployment rate rose to 7.9 percent. As in past decades, unemployment rates generally remained higher for women than for men, with the gap widening when business was buoyant and declining during sluggish periods, such as the first half of 1980. Although there was some recovery during the latter half of 1980, the economy had turned down again by the summer of 1981.

A narrowing of the female-male gap occurs during periods of recession or economic downturns, as unemployment among men grows at a faster rate than unemployment among women. This, in part, reflects the fact that men are more likely to be employed in more cyclically sensitive industries than are women.[59] During the economic downturn in the first half of 1980, joblessness among adult men rose from 4.1 percent to 5.9 percent, while the rate for adult women increased from 5.7 to 6.3 percent. By 1981, when recessionary pressures once again dominated the economy, unemployment had climbed to 7.9 percent among women and 7.4 percent among men, a gap of less than 1 percentage point. On a monthly basis, the overall unemployment rate for males throughout most of 1982 exceeded the rate for females.

Reasons for Unemployment. One major factor contributing to the higher unemployment of women than of men is the still greater inter-labor force mobility of women, that is, movement into and out of the labor force. This type of mobility is much more likely to be accompanied by unemployment than is intra-employment mobility; however, it is more common among men than women. In the latter case, a considerable amount of shopping for a new job can be done while one is still employed. Furthermore, an employed person looking for another job is not classified as unemployed. But if a person is not employed while looking for a job, a situation more common to women than to men, that person will automatically be counted as unemployed.

The effect of movement into the labor force on unemployment rates of adult women and men (20 years and over) is shown in table I–28, where unemployment rates are subdivided by reason for unemployment. In 1981,

[59] *Unemployment in Recessions: Women and Black Workers*, Curtis Gilroy, April 1977, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

Table I–27

Unemployment rates of women and men, annual averages, 1950–81

Year	Unemployment rate (percent of labor force)			Ratio of women's unemployment rates to men's
	Both sexes	Women	Men	
1950	5.3	5.7	5.1	1.1
1951	3.3	4.4	2.8	1.6
1952	3.0	3.6	2.8	1.3
1953	2.9	3.3	2.8	1.2
1954	5.5	6.0	5.3	1.1
1955	4.4	4.9	4.2	1.2
1956	4.1	4.8	3.8	1.3
1957	4.3	4.7	4.1	1.1
1958	6.8	6.8	6.8	1.0
1959	5.5	5.9	[illegible]	1.1
1960	5.5	5.9	5.4	1.1
1961	6.7	7.2	6.4	1.1
1962	5.5	6.2	5.2	1.2
1963	5.7	6.5	5.2	1.3
1964	5.2	6.2	4.6	1.3
1965	4.5	5.5	4.0	1.4
1966	3.8	4.8	3.2	1.5
1967	3.8	5.2	3.1	1.7
1968	3.6	4.8	2.9	1.7
1969	3.5	4.7	2.8	1.7
1970	4.9	5.9	4.4	1.3
1971	5.9	6.9	5.3	1.3
1972	5.6	6.6	5.0	1.3
1973	4.9	6.0	4.2	1.4
1974	5.6	6.7	4.9	1.4
1975	8.5	9.3	7.9	1.2
1976	7.7	8.6	7.1	1.2
1977	7.1	8.2	6.3	1.3
1978	6.1	7.2	5.3	1.4
1979	5.8	6.8	5.1	1.3
1980	7.1	7.4	6.9	1.1
1981	7.6	7.9	7.4	1.1

Source: *Perspectives on Working Women: A Datebook*, Bulletin 2080, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. 1970–1981 data from *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-28

Percent distribution of the unemployed and unemployment rates, by sex and reason for unemployment, annual averages, 1980 and 1981

(Persons 20 years of age and over)

Reason for unemployment	1981		1980	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total unemployed:				
Number (in thousands)	2,895	3,615	2,615	3,353
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Lost last job	45.4	71.0	44.7	71.3
Left last job	14.0	9.9	14.4	10.7
Never worked before	5.2	2.8	5.3	2.7
Total unemployment rate	6.8	6.3	6.4	5.9
Job loser rate	3.1	4.5	2.8	4.2
Job leaver rate	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.6
Reentrant rate	2.4	1.0	2.3	0.9
New entrant rate	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

entry and reentry into the labor force accounted for 2.8 percentage points (more than two-fifths) of the 6.8 percent unemployment rate for adult women, but for only 1.2 percentage points (or less than one-fifth) of the 6.3 percent unemployment rate among adult men.

In nonrecessionary times, were it not for the inclusion of unemployment caused by entry and reentry into the labor force, the rates for adult women and men would be the same—about 3 percent in 1979 (prerecession low). However, the distribution of unemployment by reason changes during recession periods when more of male joblessness is attributed to job loss through layoff (permanent or temporary). The 1981 rates minus new and reentrant workers makes clear how much harder joblessness affects the employment of men than women. Male joblessness was a full percentage point higher than female unemployment. In addition, for men, the loss of a job was more likely to be the result of layoff. Table I-28 compares reasons for unemployment for 1980 and 1981, showing the change in distribution with the most recent recession.

There were also some small differences between adult women and men with respect to their reasons for unemployment. In contrast to men, a higher proportion of joblessness among women was the result of leaving their jobs and a lower proportion resulted from losing their jobs. Still another difference was found in the higher proportion of unemployed women than men seeking part-time employment—23 percent compared with 14 percent. Nonetheless, more than 7 out of 10 unemployed adult women were seeking full-time work—about the same proportion of women who work full time.[39]

Unemployment among teenagers of both sexes is considerably higher than among adults. In 1981, when unemployment for all women averaged 7.9 percent, the rate was 20.7 percent for young women 16 and 17, and 17.9 percent for those 18 and 19 years of age (see table I-29). Rates then declined quite regularly with age, a pattern that did not change over the decade and also was true for men. As with adults, the 1981 recession saw unemployment rates increase for young women, particularly minorities (38.3 percent for black and other nonwhite women 16–19 years old). Their rate remained high throughout the decade and is up substantially since 1960, when their rate was 24.9 percent.

Duration. While unemployment decreases by age, the duration of unemployment increases with age, generally. However, at the retirement age of 65 years and over, workers may simply choose to drop out of the labor force rather than look for work when they become jobless, thus decreasing the average duration of unemployment for that age group (see tabulation below).

Demographic Characteristics

Age.—The high rate of unemployment among young women is tied closely to the considerable amount of

[39] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, table 8, p. 131, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-29

Unemployment rates of women and men, by age, 1980 and 1981

Age	1981		1980	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	7.9	7.4	7.4	6.9
16 to 19 years	19.0	20.1	17.2	18.3
16 and 17	20.7	22.0	19.6	20.4
18 and 19	17.9	18.8	15.6	16.7
20 to 24 years	11.2	13.2	10.4	12.5
25 to 34 years	7.7	6.9	7.2	6.7
35 to 44 years	5.7	4.5	5.3	4.1
45 to 54 years	4.6	4.0	4.5	3.6
55 to 64 years	3.8	3.6	3.3	3.4
65 years and over	3.6	2.9	3.1	3.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Average (mean) duration, annual average, 1981	
	Weeks
All women	11.7
16 to 19 years	8.3
20 to 24 years	10.5
25 to 34 years	12.4
35 to 44 years	13.5
45 to 54 years	14.6
55 to 64 years	16.9
65 years and over	13.9

changes in their early adult years. The changes may include school attendance or leaving school, marital and family status, starting work careers, switching from part-time to full-time jobs, and moving to new geographic areas (often because of a change in school residence or change in residence associated with marriage or a husband's job change).

Initially, much of the employment difficulty teenage women have is associated with finding part-time work. Close to 45 percent of all unemployed females 16 to 19 years of age in 1981 were looking for part-time jobs.[80] At a later age they encounter the difficulties inherent in getting regular full-time employment. Starting jobs often are unpleasant or low paying, or both. Furthermore, many young workers have to experiment with various jobs before deciding on a suitable kind of work. As a result, much of the joblessness experienced by young women reflects entering and reentering the labor force.

Nearly half (45 percent) of all jobless young women 16 to 19 years old in 1981 were new entrants to the labor force—considerably more than the 5 percent of unemployed adult women (20 years and over).[81] The next largest proportion of unemployed teenage women were reentrants to the labor force--29 percent—a substantial amount, which is more illustrative of the in and out pattern of adult women—35 percent. A relatively small proportion of the jobless teenagers were job losers—16 percent compared with 46 percent among adult women. It may well be that the turnover or intermittent nature of teenage jobs preclude employers resorting to involuntary job loss or layoffs to reduce their payrolls when required. Job "leavers" accounted for the smallest proportion of unemployed young women—11 percent—compared with 16 percent among adult women.

Marital Status.—Married women (husband present) had a lower unemployment rate (6.0 percent in 1981) than either women in the group including widowed, divorced, and separated (8.1 percent) or single, never-married (11.9 percent) women. The high rate of unemployment for single women mirrors the high rate for very young women. Yet, even among women 20 to 64 years of age, the basic pattern persisted; single women posted the highest unemployment rate at 8.8 percent, compared with 8.3 percent for the widowed, divorced, and separated and 5.8 percent for married women (husband present).[82]

Women Maintaining Families.—Nearly 580,000 unemployed women were the principal support of their own families. Their unemployment was 10.4 percent compared with 7.3 percent for similarly situated men.[83]. The absence of a husband in families headed by a woman often means that her unemployment causes severe hardships for the family. In about 50 percent of the families maintained by unemployed women, no other family member was employed; the comparable proportion in husband-wife families was about 20 percent. Moreover, when employed, only 28 percent of the families maintained by women contained another earner, compared with 42 percent of the families that were maintained by a male householder (see table I-12).[84]

Minority.—The average unemployment rate of minority race women in 1981 was twice as high as the rate for white women—15.6 percent compared with 6.9 percent (see table I-30). For the past quarter century, the rate for minority race women has been between 75 and 100 percent greater than the rate for white women.[85] The ratio between minority/white unemployment rates illustrates the gap and shows that in recent years the gap has begun

[80] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, *op. cit.*, table 8, p. 131.

[81] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, *op. cit.*, table 13, p. 134.

[82] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, *op. cit.*, table 10, p. 132.

[83] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, *op. cit.*, table 9, p. 132.

[84] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, *op. cit.*, table 60, p. 168.

[85] "Black and White Unemployment: The Dynamics of the Differential," Curtis L. Gilroy, *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1974, pp. 38-47, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-30

Labor force status of women, by race, annual averages, 1955-81

Year	Women						
	Population (Numbers in thousands)		Labor force participation rate		Unemployment rate		Ratio of black to white unemployment rates
	White	Black and other	White	Black and other	White	Black and other	
1955	51,803	5,772	34.5	46.1	4.3	8.4	2.0
1956	52,372	5,857	35.7	47.3	4.2	8.9	2.1
1957	52,997	5,952	35.7	47.2	4.3	7.3	1.7
1958	53,645	6,047	35.8	48.0	6.2	10.8	1.7
1959	54,393	6,144	36.0	47.7	5.3	9.4	1.8
1960	55,215	6,369	36.5	48.2	5.3	9.4	1.8
1961	55,994	6,489	36.9	48.3	6.5	11.8	1.8
1962	56,660	6,663	36.7	48.0	5.5	11.0	2.0
1963	57,672	6,823	37.2	48.1	5.8	11.2	1.9
1964	58,665	6,972	37.5	48.5	5.5	10.6	1.9
1965	59,601	7,130	38.1	48.6	5.0	9.2	1.8
1966	60,503	7,292	39.2	49.3	4.3	8.6	2.0
1967	61,492	7,477	40.1	49.5	4.6	9.1	2.0
1968	62,513	7,666	40.7	49.3	4.3	8.3	1.9
1969	63,564	7,873	41.8	49.8	4.2	7.8	1.9
1970	64,658	8,123	42.6	49.5	5.9	9.3	1.6
1971	65,857	8,415	42.6	49.2	6.9	10.9	1.6
1972	67,431	8,858	43.2	48.8	6.6	11.4	1.7
1973	68,517	9,287	44.1	49.3	6.0	10.6	1.8
1974	69,623	9,689	45.2	49.3	6.7	10.8	1.6
1975	70,810	10,052	45.9	49.4	9.3	13.9	1.5
1976	71,974	10,415	46.9	50.4	8.6	13.6	1.6
1977	73,077	10,762	48.0	51.2	8.2	13.9	1.7
1978	74,213	11,121	49.5	53.5	7.2	13.1	1.8
1979	75,347	11,496	50.5	53.7	6.8	12.3	1.8
1980	76,489	11,858	51.2	53.6	6.5	13.1	2.0
1981	77,428	12,190	51.9	53.6	6.9	14.3	2.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

to widen for both women and men, although the ratio is somewhat smaller for women.

Rates of unemployment among minority[a] race women, as among white women, decline with increasing age (see table I-31). At all ages, however, minority race women have much higher rates than white women, but the difference is greatest among young women under 25 years of age, and particularly among teenagers (see chart I-3). Between 1960 and 1970, the unemployment rate rose from 24.5 percent to 32.9 percent for women of minority races who were 18 and 19 years of age and from 25.7 percent to 36.9 percent for black 16 and 17 year olds.

Over the decade of the 1970's, there has been no appreciable improvement in the jobless situation for teenage minority women. The increasing unemployment among these teenagers has represented one of the most difficult situations arising in recent years. Accordingly, these young women have been the focus of considerable employment and training program efforts (see chapter 4).

The unemployment rate of black teenagers has been consistently greater than 30 percent for the past 10 years, with no recovery from the recession of 1973-75 and the most recent economic slowdown in late 1980 and 1981. This lack of substantial improvement stands in contrast to the recovery among black women and men over age 25 and among white women and men of all age groups, including teenagers. However, the 1981 downturn has had a greater impact on black minority workers, both women and men, than on their white counterparts.

[a] Includes black, American Indian, Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, and other persons except white. According to the 1970 Decennial Census, 89 percent of the group was identified as black.

Table I-31

Unemployment rates of women, by age and race, selected years, 1960-81

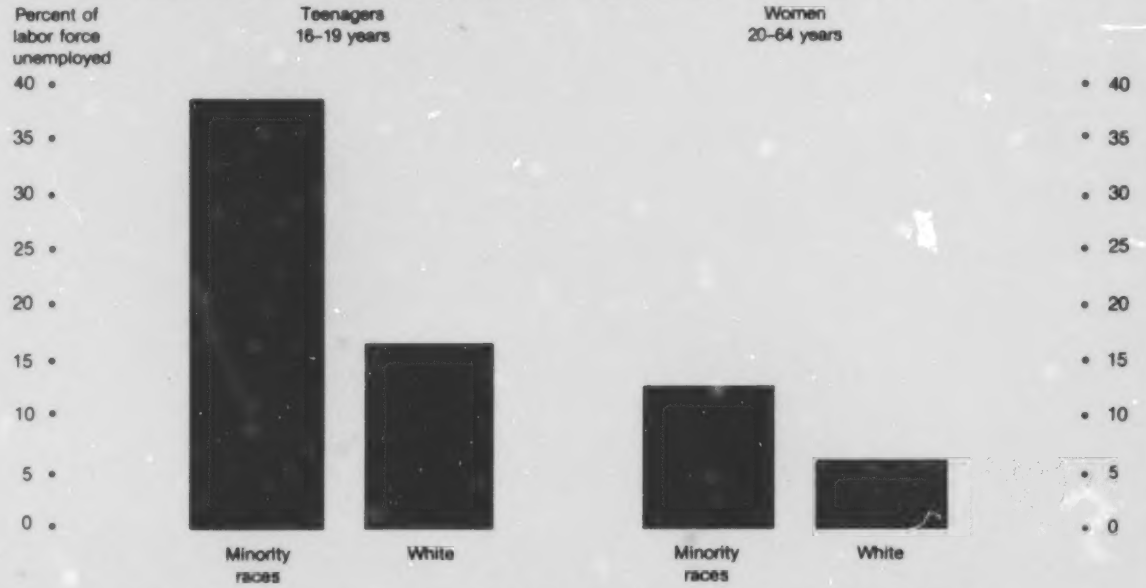
	1981		1980		1970		1960	
	White	Minority races	White	Minority races	White	Minority races	White	Minority races
Total	6.9	14.3	6.5	13.1	5.4	9.3	5.3	9.4
16 and 17 years	18.4	41.4	17.3	40.0	15.3	36.9	14.5	25.7
18 and 19 years	15.3	36.5	13.1	34.5	11.9	32.9	11.5	24.5
20 to 24 years	9.1	24.2	8.5	21.8	6.9	15.0	7.2	15.3
25 to 34 years	6.6	13.9	6.3	12.2	5.3	7.9	5.7	9.1
35 to 44 years	5.1	8.9	4.9	7.6	4.3	4.8	4.2	8.6
45 to 54 years	4.2	6.7	4.3	6.3	3.4	4.0	4.0	5.7
55 to 64 years	3.7	4.6	3.1	4.7	2.6	3.2	3.3	4.3
65 years and over	3.4	5.7	3.0	4.7	3.3	1.9	2.8	4.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Chart I-3.

Unemployment rates are highest for teenage and minority race women.

Unemployment rates for white and minority* race women 16–19 and 20–64 years of age, annual averages, 1981.



*Includes black, American Indian, Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, and other persons except white. According to the 1970 census, 89 percent of the group was identified as black.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

During 1954–81, the most important features of the labor market experience of young women were sharp increases in unemployment among black women, an upward trend in the female-male unemployment differential, and important changes in the patterns of labor force participation between blacks and whites. The already high unemployment rates of female black teenagers have increased dramatically over time, while unemployment among young black women 20–24 years of age demonstrated a slight upward trend after 1965. The rates of white teenage women appear to have increased only slightly, not approaching the magnitude of the increase for black teens.

Table I-32

Occupational distribution of the experienced employed and unemployed white and minority women, annual average, 1981

Occupation	Women	
	White	Minority
Employed		
Total:		
Number (in thousands)	37,394	5,606
Percent	100.0	100.0
Professional-technical	17.3	15.5
Managerial-administrative, except farm	7.8	4.2
Sales	7.3	3.2
Clerical	35.5	29.5
Craft	1.9	1.5
Operatives, excluding transport	9.1	14.3
Transport operatives	0.7	0.7
Nonfarm laborers	1.2	1.3
Service	17.9	29.3
Private household workers	1.8	5.8
All other service	16.1	23.4
Farm	1.2	0.6
Unemployed'		
Total:		
Number (in thousands)	2,409	777
Rate	6.1	12.2
Professional-technical	3.1	5.6
Managerial-administrative, except farm	3.7	7.9
Sales	5.3	13.4
Clerical	5.2	11.0
Craft	6.1	8.9
Operatives, excluding transport	12.7	19.0
Transport operatives	7.0	11.0
Nonfarm laborers	11.8	27.0
Service	7.9	14.1
Private household workers	4.7	5.2
All other service	7.9	14.1

' Excludes persons with no previous work experience.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Many reasons have been given to explain the youth unemployment situation. Although no consensus has been reached among analysts, certain contributing factors are persistently cited: A crowded market? (The most popular explanation, not only for unemployment among all youth but also for the relative and absolute employment deterioration among blacks, is the post-World War II baby boom.) "Priced-out" by minimum wage? A new labor market? Job-search differences? Swelling school rolls? Job suburbanization and skill mismatch? Influx of women? Bowers discusses these factors and presents a detailed analysis of youth unemployment, including black unemployment in an article.[87]

While the rate of unemployment for minority race women was more than twice that of white women in 1981, the difference was even greater in certain occupation groups. Among sales workers, the rate was 13.4 percent for minority race women, compared with 5.3 percent for white women in 1981. More important, minority women are more likely than white women to work at occupations associated with high unemployment—services and operative jobs—(see table I-32).

How Women Find Jobs

In January 1973 the Bureau of Labor Statistics, with the support of the then Manpower Administration, first obtained information on job finding methods. The survey covered wage and salary workers who were not in

[87] "Young and Marginal: An Overview of Youth Employment," Norman Bowers, *Monthly Labor Review*, *op. cit.* Also see "The Labor-Market Experience of Black Youth, 1954–78," *op. cit.*, pp. 19–27.

Table I-33

Women not in the labor force, by age, annual averages, selected years, 1950-81

Age	Year				
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1981
Total: 16 years and over:					
Number (in thousands)	35,881	38,343	41,214	41,871	42,922
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 to 24	15.6	16.2	18.7	16.7	16.7
16 to 19	6.9	8.3	10.0	9.1	9.1
20 to 24	8.7	7.9	8.7	7.6	7.6
25 to 34	22.2	19.2	16.9	15.0	15.0
35 to 44	18.1	18.0	13.9	10.9	10.5
45 to 54	15.2	13.9	13.3	11.1	10.5
55 to 64	13.8	13.2	13.3	15.5	15.9
65 and over	15.1	19.6	23.9	30.8	31.5
Median age (years)	41.7	43.1	45.4	51.3	51.9

Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

school and who had started their current job in 1972.[68]

For employed women, the method most often used to look for work was asking friends and relatives. A more recent study conducted by Mary Corcoran (Study Director at the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research) and others, and based on data derived from the 11th wave of the Panel Study of Income Dynamics, continues to support the conclusion that the majority of workers hear about their current jobs from friends and relatives.[69] Both of these studies relate to employed persons and current jobs.

Generally, there was considerable similarity between women and men in the degree to which they used the various jobseeking methods and in the distribution of methods that got them their jobs. However, somewhat smaller proportions of unemployed women than men reported asking friends and relatives, and using the public employment service.

Looking at job search methods from the view of unemployed persons produces a different pattern of search. The Bureau of Labor Statistics now regularly publishes data on the jobseeking methods of unemployed persons in its monthly publication, *Employment and Earnings*.[70] Overall, these data show that applying directly to employers was the job seeking method most frequently used by unemployed female or male workers—7 out of 10 jobseekers, in 1981. Less than 2 in 10 jobseekers used friends or relatives and less than half that proportion used private employment agencies. In between the two extremes, jobseekers placed or answered newspaper advertisements (about one-third) or used public employment agencies (25 percent).[71]

Women Not in the Labor Force

The number of persons outside of the labor force—neither working nor looking for work—increased by 7.1 million over the decade, reaching 61.5 million in 1981. Although women still account for the largest proportion—7 out of 10—of all persons not in the labor force, their numbers are not growing as rapidly as male nonparticipants. Men accounted for three-fourths of the 7.1 million increase, reflecting the long-term downward trend in labor force participation among men, as older men leave the labor force because of retirement.

There were 42.9 million women outside the labor force in 1981. For the most part, these women state that they do not want a job, reporting household responsibilities as the main reason they neither work nor look for work. As greater proportions of younger women enter the labor market, the women who do not work for pay outside their homes are increasingly older. In 1981 the median age of women not in the labor force was about 52 years, compared with a little more than 45 years at the beginning of the 1970's (see table I-33). In contrast, the median age of women in the labor force fell from about 38 years in 1970 to 34 years in 1981.

Among the 61.5 million nonparticipants in the labor force in 1981, about 5.8 million—3.9 million women and 1.9 million men—also said that they would like a job

[68] Jobseeking Methods Used by American Workers, Bulletin 1886, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[69] "Most Workers Find Jobs Through Word of Mouth," Mary Corcoran and others, *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1980, pp. 33-35. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[70] *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, *op. cit.*, tables 15 and 16, p. 135.

[71] The percentage using each method will always total more than 100 because many jobseekers use more than one method. The average number of methods used by women in 1979 was 1.49.

"now." Most cited school attendance, ill health, or home responsibilities as the reason which prevented them from looking for work (see table I-1).

"Discouraged" workers make up an even smaller proportion of nonparticipation in general and of those who want a job "now" in particular. Over 1 million nonparticipants—700,000 women and 400,000 men—wanted a job now but were not looking for work because they felt they would be unable to find a job. These "discouraged workers" are not classified as unemployed because they do not meet the labor market test of having searched for work during the month prior to the survey interview. Typically, about a third of all "discouraged" workers cite personal problems, factors such as age or lack of education, as the reason they feel they would not be able to find a job; the remainder cite job market factors. The size of the latter group tends to respond to cyclical pressures, while the former usually shows little cyclical movement.[72]

Women as Union Members

Labor organizations represented 7.2 million women or 19 percent of the 38.2 million women employed as wage and salary workers in 1980; a somewhat lower number and proportion were actual members—6.1 million or 16 percent of similarly employed women (see table I-34). Since 1970, there has been an increase of about 1.8 million women who are members of or represented by labor organizations.[73] (These data were derived from the Current Population Survey in May 1980, which asked two questions (1) whether worker was actually in a union or employee association, and (2) only if the first was answered in the negative, whether the worker was covered by a union or employee association contract. These data are not strictly comparable with prior Bureau of Labor Statistics information derived from information voluntarily submitted by unions and employee associations in response to a questionnaire. However, the patterns and trends in labor organization membership are similar between the two data sources.) The growth has been continuous, reflecting particularly the increase in employment in the service industries and in State and local governments. Yet, while women have been moving into the rank-and-file of unions and employee associations, their representation in official positions has not advanced proportionally.[74]

The proportion of union members who are women has increased since the mid-1950's despite a decline in the proportion of the labor force that is organized (see table I-35). In May 1980, 30 percent of union members were women, up from 24 percent in 1970. By race, black women comprised 41 percent of all employed black labor organization members, while white women comprised 28 percent of their group. However, during a period of unprecedented entry of women into the work force (1970-79), the proportion of women in unions and employee associations did not increase in proportion to the women's segment of the civilian labor force—43 percent in 1980. In addition, a larger proportion of minority wage and salary workers than white workers were organized—24 percent of employed black women compared with 15 percent of white women were members of labor organizations in May 1980.

Women's disproportionate share of labor organization membership is most likely due to the fact that union membership continues to be concentrated in the traditionally male blue-collar occupations. The largest proportion of women in the labor force work in clerical and service occupations in industries where union organization is less extensive than among the blue-collar workers in manufacturing industries. However, to the extent that women are assuming a more active role in achieving their economic goals, unionization is becoming increasingly attractive in white-collar and service industries.

Nonetheless, those who are organized have benefited from membership in labor organizations. In addition to more generous and comprehensive fringe benefits, there is a significant differential in wages. In May 1977 (data are no longer disaggregated by sex) the usual weekly earnings of full-time employed women represented by labor organizations exceeded those of unorganized and similarly employed women by 30 percent ($206 v. $159). Organized women's earnings were 73 percent of organized men's earnings ($206 v. $283), while unorganized employed women earned 60 percent of unorganized men's earnings ($159 v. $273).

In recent years there has been some dispersion in women union members. In 1978 women made up at least 50 percent of all members in 26 unions. These unions accounted for 44.8 percent of all female members. In 1978 only 18 unions reported no female members compared with 45 in 1970.

Although only 18 of 208 national unions and employee associations reported no women members in 1978, women tended to join and to be organized by unions already having large numbers of women members. In 1978 the 23 unions and employee associations with at least 50,000 women members accounted for 81 percent of all organized women workers. The pattern is attributable largely to the continued employment of large numbers of women in a limited number of occupations. Of the organizations reporting their membership in both

[72] "Employment and Unemployment During 1979, An Analysis," Carol Boyd Leon and Philip L. Rones, *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1980, pp. 9-10, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[73] *Earnings and Other Characteristics of Organized Workers, May 1980*. Bulletin 2105, September 1981, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[74] "Women in Labor Organizations. Their Ranks Are Increasing." Linda H. LeGrande, *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1978, pp. 8-14; *Directory of National Unions and Employee Associations, 1979*, Bulletin 2079, September 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-34

Labor organization status of employed wage and salary workers, by sex and race, May 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Membership status	All races		White		Black	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total						
Represented	22,493	100.0	19,176	100.0	3,317	100.0
Members	20,095	89.3	17,099	89.2	2,996	90.3
Nonmembers covered by contracts	2,39	10.7	2,077	10.8	321	9.7
Men						
Represented	15,302	100.0	13,375	100.0	1,927	100.0
Members	14,039	91.7	12,261	91.7	1,778	92.3
Nonmembers covered by contracts	1,263	8.3	1,114	8.3	149	7.7
Women						
Represented	7,191	100.0	5,801	100.0	1,390	100.0
Members	6,056	84.2	4,838	83.4	1,218	87.6
Nonmembers covered by contracts	1,136	15.8	963	16.6	173	12.4

Note: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Source: *Earnings and Other Characteristics of Organized Workers*, May 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table I-35

Membership of women in national unions and employee associations, selected years, 1954–78

Year	Number of women members (in thousands)	Percent of total membership
Unions and associations:		
1970	5,398	23.9
1972	5,736	24.9
1974	6,038	25.0
1976	6,438	26.7
1978	6,857	28.1
Unions:		
1954	2,950	16.6
1956	3,400	18.6
1958	3,274	18.2
1960	3,304	18.3
1962	3,272	18.6
1964	3,413	19.0
1966	3,689	19.3
1968	3,940	19.5
1970	4,282	20.7
1972	4,524	21.7
1974	4,600	21.3
1976	4,648	22.0
1978	4,267	24.2

Source: *Directory of National Unions and Employee Associations, 1979*, Bulletin 2079, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

1970 and 1978, the same 23 unions and associations had large numbers of women members, with only one reporting fewer than 50,000 women members in 1970. Labor organizations which had increased women's membership by at least 150,000 over the year period, 1970–78, included the teacher's organizations—both the union and the association; retail clerks; State, county, and municipal employees; Teamsters; and service employees.

Women joined employee associations because of the common occupations and industries that women enter and the associations represent. For example, the National Education Association is made up primarily of teachers, a predominantly female occupation. The NEA accounts for two-thirds of all women in associations. Nursing, another occupation historically dominated by women is organized primarily by the American Nurses' Association and the National Federation of Licensed Practical Nurses. Women now account for 45 percent of membership in employee associations of State workers.[75]

Although a growing proportion of women are on the membership rolls of unions and employee associations, their representation in official positions has not advanced proportionally.

According to a Coalition of Labor Union Women (CLUW) report, *Absent From the Agenda,* women accounted for 50 percent of the expansion in union membership during the last two decades. Yet, women are seldom in positions where they can affect contract or policy decisions. Moreover, 30 percent of all organized workers are women, but only 12 percent of all national leadership positions are occupied by women.[76]

Recognizing that the problems of women workers transcend individual unions, women from 58 labor organizations formed the Coalition of Labor Union Women—CLUW—in 1974. (The Coalition of Labor Union Women was created without the support of the AFL-CIO, but 3 years later AFL-CIO President George Meany did express support for the coalition.) Together in one oganization women (and men) from AFL-CIO affiliated unions, independent unions, and employee associations work within the labor movement to organize the nonorganized, increase participation of women unionists in their unions, utilize affirmative action through their unions, and press for legislative action to further women's human interests, such as child care.

In addition, changes occurred within the Executive Council of the AFL-CIO during the 1978–79 period. In addition to the election of Lane Kirkland as President, a 15-member Executive Council Committee was created at the convention to explore means by which women and minority members may be more adequately represented at the highest echelons of the Federation. In a statement following the February 1980 meeting of the Executive Council, Kirkland announced a plan to set aside two seats on the Executive Council, one for a woman and one for a member of a minority group. These additions would be made as seats become available through normal member turnover. This move toward expanding the role of women and minorities is a significant break with tradition. Although, under the AFL-CIO constitution, any member in good standing of an affiliated union is eligible to serve as a member of the Executive Council, with rare exceptions only presidents of affiliated organizations have been nominated and elected.[77]

A seat on the Executive Council became vacant in 1980. Late that year Joyce Miller, President of CLUW since 1977, was nominated and elected to the Executive Council of the AFL-CIO, becoming the first woman to serve on the Council since its formation. She also serves as an International Vice-President and Director of Social Services for the Amalgamated Clothing and Textile Workers Union. In 1981, Barbara Hutchinson, Director of the Women's Department, American Federation of Government Employees (AFGE), was elected to the Executive Council, AFL-CIO.

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[75] Directory of National Unions and Employee Associations, 1979, *op. cit.*, pp. 50-51. (This directory is no longer published.)

[76] "Lack of Women in Labor Leadership Examined by Major Study." Coalition of Labor Union Women, News Release, September 12, 1980. Center for Education and Research, Inc., Washington, D.C.

[77] *Directory of National Unions and Employees Associations, 1979, op. cit.*, pp. 50-51.

Chapter II
WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES

As women entered the 1980's, they continued to be concentrated in the traditional female occupations. Despite some positive signs of change, more than half (55 percent) of all employed women are in two occupation groups. The largest single category is still the clerical one—stenographer, typist, secretary—a category that first gained prominence among women in the 1920's and 1930's.[1] The second largest occupation category is service work—food handlers, health service workers, personal service workers, and the like.

Nevertheless, laws enacted in the 1960's and 1970's which seek to end sex discrimination in employment—for example, the Equal Pay Act, title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Equal Employment Opportunity), and the Pregnancy Discrimination Act (see chapter V)—are having some effect on the occupational distribution of women. By the end of the 1970's, women had begun to make inroads into skilled crafts, managerial positions, and other jobs traditionally held by men. The younger women—those under age 35—are making the greatest strides into nontraditional, male-dominated jobs.

More than in previous decades women can now be found in nearly every job category listed in the national census of occupations. Moreover, there are indications that the concentration of women within some categories may be lessening.

Along with legislative initiatives that support a changing economic role for women, many special programs have been developed to create new educational and training opportunities. Examples are pre-apprenticeship and apprenticeship training, vocational training, increased professional opportunities, and the encouragement of entrepreneurship for women.

However, despite the efforts being made by women to enlarge their occupational horizons and the development of programs to encourage these efforts, occupational and industrial segregation remains the single most important problem facing women workers today because it is closely tied to their low earnings (see chapter III).

Differences in Occupations of Women and Men

Overall, the 43 million employed women workers make up 43 percent of total employment. One way to view differences in the occupations of women and men is to examine the proportion of women and men in each major occupation group. Charts II-1 and II-2 show that in 1981 women and men still are employed largely in different occupation groups. The greatest numbers of women continued to find employment in office and service jobs, and the greatest numbers of men continued to be employed in skilled craft, operative, and management jobs.

Men historically have been more dispersed among all occupations than women, but as the following discussion will show, women are making inroads in all occupations at all levels.

White Collar

A significantly greater proportion of women than men worked in office jobs of all kinds—in 1981, some 66 percent of women versus 43 percent of men. The most obvious difference in these jobs held by women and men is the concentration of women in clerical occupations. Among female workers, 15 million (35 percent) were employed in clerical jobs in 1981 compared with only 6

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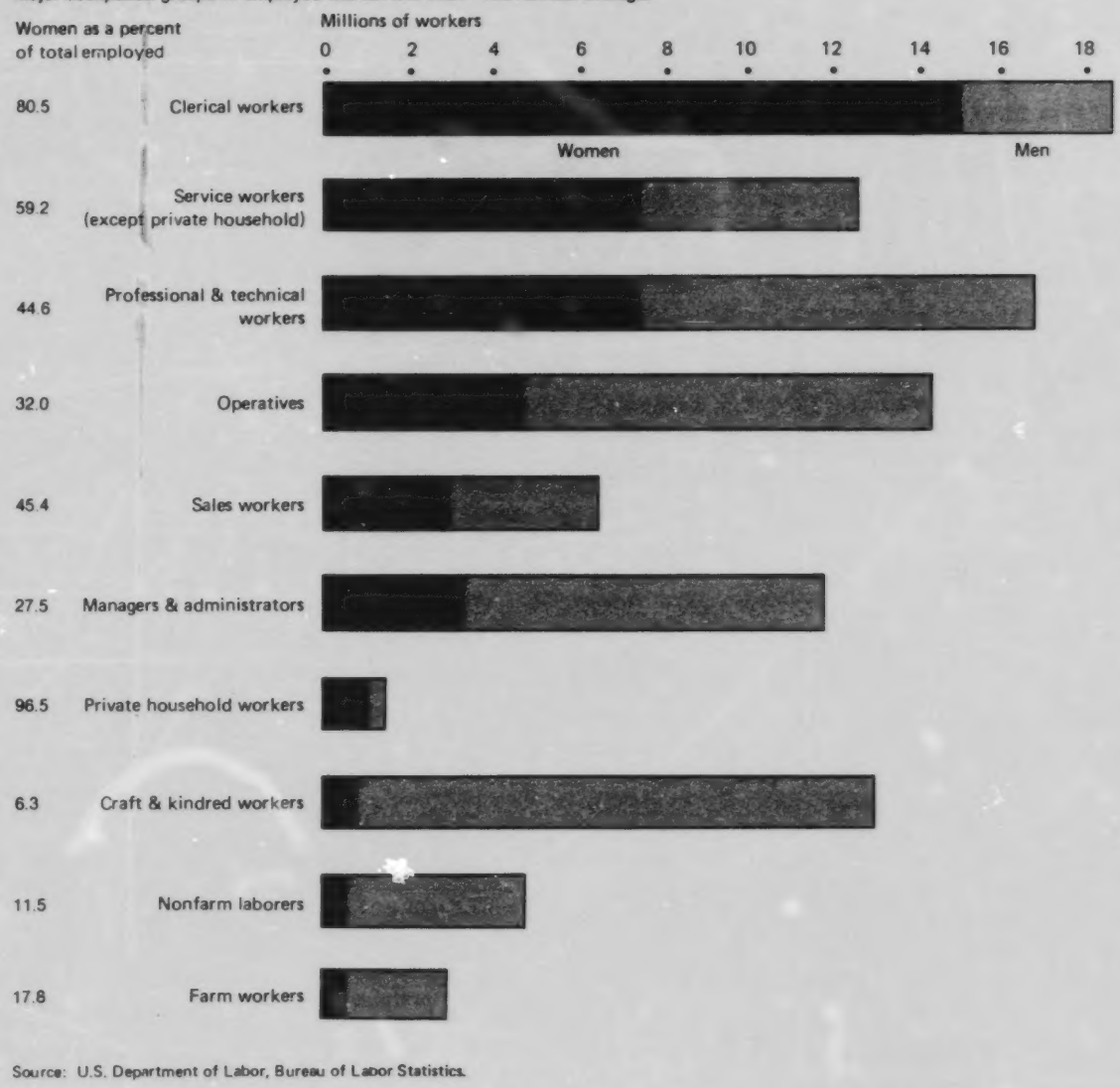
[1] *Women in the Labor Force: Some New Data Series*, Janet L. Norwood and Elizabeth Waldman. Report 575, 1979, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Note: In this chapter, the occupational discussion is based largely on data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), conducted each month for the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) by the Census Bureau. It is based on household interviews obtained from a sample of the population 16 years old and over. The industrial discussion is based largely on data from establishment surveys of nonagricultural payrolls conducted by BLS. The establishment series provides a count of jobs, the CPS provides a count of individuals. Despite these differences, data on the industrial employment of women from the establishment series complements and confirms trends that are indicated by the CPS.

Chart II-1.

Employment in different occupation groups varies by sex.

Major occupation groups of employed women and men—1981 annual average.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

percent of male workers (tables II-1 and II-2). Over the last decade the proportion in this occupation changed little for women, but declined slightly for men. The proportions also were little changed for sales workers, at 7 percent for women and 6 percent for men. For both men and women, the proportion of professional and technical workers advanced similarly while the proportion of female managers and administrators posted a sizeable gain. Still, the proportion of female managers and administrators was about half that of men.

The proportion of all employed women with professional and technical jobs in 1981 was slightly higher than the proportion for men: 17 and 16 percent, respectively. However, women were more likely to be employed in traditional female jobs as registered nurses, health technologists and technicians, teachers (except college), librarians, and social workers. Men were more likely to be engineers, architects, lawyers and judges, and physicians, dentists, and related practitioners. Although the proportion of men in managerial positions (15 percent)

Table II-1

Major occupation groups of employed persons, by sex, 1972 and 1981

Occupation	Women		Men	
	1981	1972	1981	1972
Total employed:				
Number (in thousands)	43,000	31,218	57,397	50,935
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar workers	65.9	61.0	42.9	39.8
Professional and technical workers	17.0	14.5	15.9	13.8
Managers and administrators (except farm)	7.4	4.6	14.6	13.1
Sales workers	6.8	7.2	6.1	6.2
Clerical workers	34.7	34.7	6.3	6.9
Blue-collar workers	13.6	15.4	44.3	47.0
Craft and kindred workers	1.9	1.3	20.7	20.6
Operatives (except transport)	9.7	12.8	11.1	12.5
Transport equipment operatives	0.7	0.4	5.5	6.1
Nonfarm laborers	1.2	0.8	7.1	7.8
Service workers	19.4	22.0	8.9	8.1
Private household workers	2.3	4.5	0.1	0.1
Other	17.1	17.5	8.8	8.1
Farm workers	1.1	1.7	3.9	5.0
Farmers and farm managers	0.4	0.3	2.3	3.1
Farm laborers and supervisors	0.7	1.4	1.6	1.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-2

Major occupation groups of employed women, 1972 and 1981

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Major occupation group	Number (in thousands)		Percent distribution	
	1981	1972	1981	1972
Total	43,000	31,218	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical workers	7,319	4,534	17.0	14.5
Managers and administrators	3,168	1,422	7.4	4.6
Sales workers	2,915	2,239	6.8	7.2
Clerical workers	14,938	10,833	34.7	34.7
Craft and kindred workers	803	391	1.9	1.3
Operatives	4,499	4,145	10.5	13.3
Nonfarm laborers	527	255	1.2	0.8
Service workers	8,342	6,880	19.4	22.0
Private household	1,010	1,407	2.3	4.5
Other	7,332	5,463	17.1	17.5
Farm workers	490	545	1.1	1.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

continues to be greater than that for women, employment of women in these jobs increased steadily over the decade. In 1972 nearly 5 percent of employed women were managers or administrators; in 1981 more than 7 percent of women workers held such jobs. In addition, a somewhat larger proportion of all women workers (7 percent) than of men workers (6 percent) had jobs as sales workers in 1981. However, while the proportion of women employed in these jobs declined somewhat, the proportion of men held steady.

Blue Collar

Almost the reverse employment profile has prevailed among blue-collar workers as compared with white-collar workers. Men are three times more likely than women to work in blue-collar jobs. Men are more concentrated particularly in the skilled crafts and in semi-skilled operative jobs. In 1981, 21 percent of all employed men were craft and kindred workers compared with less than 2 percent of the women. In transport equipment operative jobs the proportions of women and men were less than 1 percent and 6 percent, respectively. Although men outnumbered women in these skilled and semi-skilled occupations, the numbers of women have been increasing rapidly, particularly in transport operatives and skilled crafts. The number of women craft workers increased between 1972 and 1981—from 391,000 to 803,000—as shown on Table II-2.

Service

Service occupations make up the second largest sector of women's employment. A greater proportion of women (19 percent) than of men (9 percent) were employed as service workers in 1981. Less than 3 percent of employed women held jobs in private households and the proportion for men was negligible. Both in terms of numbers and in the proportion of women employed in private household jobs, there has been a decline since 1972. The growth of women's employment in other service occupations also has been slower than it has been in white-collar jobs.

Farm

Men outnumber women more than 4 to 1 in this occupation group. However, farm work accounts for only 4 percent of men's employment and less than half that for women's employment. Employment in farm occupations has been trending downward for some time.

Occupational Distribution of Women

In this section, the analysis of the occupational distribution of women is based largely on women's employment growth over the 1972–81 period. The use of data over this period takes into account the redefinition of occupational classifications by the Federal Government for the 1970 census which made the Current Population Survey (CPS) data comparable from 1972 forward.[2] It provides a view of women's employment for almost all of the decade of the 1970's and into the early 1980's.

Concentration in Occupations

Although increasing numbers of women have entered traditionally male career fields in the last decade, women are still concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations, as shown in table II-3. For example, in 1981, almost two of every five (36.4 percent) women workers were employed in 10 occupations. In the order of numbers employed, these were secretary, bookkeeper, sales clerk (retail trade), cashier, waiter, registered nurse, elementary school teacher, private household worker, typist, and nursing aide. More than 900,000 women were employed in each of these occupations. Some of these occupations are among those with the largest employment gains in the decade, i.e., secretary, cashier, registered nurse, and bookkeeper. Among professional occupations, the largest employment gain between 1972 and 1980 was among registered nurses.[3] In 1972, when BLS began to publish detailed occupational data on an annual basis, more than two-fifths of all employed women were in these 10 occupations. These remain the jobs where women traditionally have been segregated, where the overwhelming majority of all employees are women. These also are the jobs where earnings are lower, as discussed in Chapter III.

Over 80 percent of all women workers were employed in 71 out of about 400 detailed occupations in 1981. Forty-one of the occupations were white-collar, 16 were service, and the other 14 were blue-collar or farm occupations. At least 100,000 women were employed in each of these occupations. In 1950 there were only 29 occupations in which 100,000 or more women were employed; in 1973 there were 57 occupations in this category. The expansion in the number of occupations with large numbers of women workers reflects the great increases in the number of women who have entered the labor force in recent years as well as some lessening of the concentration of women in a relatively small number of traditional occupations.

Shifts to Nontraditional Jobs

As defined by the Women's Bureau, nontraditional jobs for women are those in which women make up 25 percent or less of the total number of workers. There is, however, no clear-cut consensus on this definition among researchers.

The following discussion of women in nontraditional jobs is based on extremely small estimates for detailed

[2] "Revisions in Occupation Classifications for 1971," reprinted from *Employment and Earnings*, February 1971, and "Revisions in Current Population Survey," reprinted from *Employment and Earnings*, February 1972, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[3] "Occupational Winners and Losers: Who They Were During 1972–80." Carol Boyd Leon, *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-3

Employed persons in selected occupations, by sex, annual averages, 1981

Occupation	Women			Men	
	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution	As percent of total employment	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution
Total	43,000	100.0	42.8	57,397	100.0
White-Collar Workers	**28,328**	**65.9**	**53.5**	**24,621**	**42.9**
Professional and technical workers	7,319	17.0	44.6	9,100	15.9
Accountants	434	1.0	38.5	692	1.2
Computer specialists	170	0.4	27.1	458	0.8
Librarians, archivists, and curators	159	0.4	82.8	33	0.1
Personnel and labor relations workers	220	0.5	49.9	221	0.4
Physicians	62	0.1	13.7	392	0.7
Registered nurses	1,296	3.0	96.8	44	0.1
Health technologists and technicians	465	1.1	72.3	178	0.3
Social workers	249	0.6	63.8	141	0.2
Teachers, college and university	206	0.5	35.2	380	0.7
Teachers (except college and university)	2,257	5.2	70.6	940	1.6
Elementary school teachers	1,180	2.7	83.6	232	0.4
Kindergarten and prekindergarten teachers	241	0.6	98.4	4	(*)
Secondary school teachers	632	1.5	51.3	599	1.0
Engineering and science technicians	214	0.5	18.8	927	1.6
Writers, artists, and entertainers	553	1.3	39.8	834	1.5
Managers and administrators (except farm)	3,168	7.4	27.5	8,372	14.6
Bank officers and financial managers	261	0.6	37.5	435	0.8
Buyers and purchasing agents	167	0.4	35.1	309	0.5
Restaurant, cafeteria, and bar managers	293	0.7	40.3	434	0.8
Sales managers and department heads (retail trade)	139	0.3	40.2	206	0.4
School administrators	156	0.4	36.3	274	0.5
Sales workers	2,916	6.8	45.4	3,509	6.1
Hucksters and peddlers	135	0.3	79.4	35	0.1
Insurance agents, brokers, and underwriters	142	0.3	23.9	453	0.8
Real estate agents and brokers	280	0.7	49.8	282	0.5
Sales clerks (retail trade)	1,730	4.0	71.2	702	1.2
Clerical workers	14,938	34.7	80.5	3,626	6.3
Bank tellers	532	1.2	93.5	37	0.1
Billing clerks	135	0.3	88.2	18	(*)
Bookkeepers	1,786	4.2	91.1	175	0.3
Cashiers	1,431	3.3	86.2	229	0.4
Counter clerks (except food)	275	0.6	76.4	85	0.1
Estimators and investigators (n.e.c.)	295	0.7	54.6	245	0.4
File clerks	264	0.6	83.8	51	0.1
Computer and peripheral equipment operators	360	0.8	63.8	204	0.4
Keypunch operators	232	0.5	93.5	15	(*)
Payroll and timekeeping clerks	187	0.4	81.0	44	0.1
Postal clerks	102	0.2	37.9	167	0.3
Receptionists	657	1.5	97.3	17	(*)
Secretaries	3,883	9.0	99.1	34	0.1
Shipping and receiving clerks	118	0.3	22.5	406	0.7
Statistical clerks	297	0.7	80.3	73	0.1
Stock clerks and storekeepers	184	0.4	34.8	344	0.6
Teachers aides (except school monitors)	354	0.8	92.9	27	(*)
Telephone operators	286	0.7	92.9	22	(*)
Typists	993	2.3	96.3	38	0.1

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Table II-3 (Continued)

Employed persons in selected occupations, by sex, annual averages, 1981

Occupation	Women			Men	
	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution	As percent of total employment	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution
Blue-Collar Workers	**5,815**	**13.5**	**18.6**	**25,446**	**44.3**
Craft and kindred workers	802	1.9	6.3	11,859	20.7
Blue-collar supervisors	205	0.5	11.3	1,611	2.8
Printing craft workers	100	0.2	24.9	302	0.5
Operatives (including transport)	4,499	10.5	32.1	9,517	16.6
Assemblers	611	1.4	52.4	556	1.0
Checkers, examiners and inspectors (manufacturing)	430	1.0	53.8	369	0.6
Clothes ironers and pressers	95	0.2	80.5	23	(')
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)	114	0.3	97.4	3	(')
Laundry and dry cleaning operators (n.e.c.)	129	0.3	66.5	66	0.1
Packers and wrappers	372	0.9	63.2	217	0.4
Sewers and stitchers	775	1.8	96.0	32	0.1
Textile operatives	183	0.4	61.0	116	0.2
Bus drivers	170	0.4	47.2	190	0.3
Nonfarm laborers	527	1.2	11.5	4,056	7.1
Stockhandlers	244	0.6	24.6	749	1.3
Service Workers	**8,342**	**19.4**	**62.1**	**5,097**	**8.9**
Private household workers	1,010	2.3	96.5	38	1.0
Child care workers	440	1.0	97.6	11	(')
Private household cleaners and servants	445	1.0	95.1	22	(')
Service workers (except private household)	7,332	17.1	59.2	5,059	8.8
Cleaning service workers	961	2.2	38.6	1,528	2.7
Building interior cleaners	528	1.2	55.3	427	0.7
Lodging quarters cleaners	175	0.4	97.2	5	(')
Janitors and sextons	258	0.6	19.1	1,096	1.9
Food service workers	3,101	7.2	66.2	1,581	2.8
Bartenders	149	0.3	47.3	166	0.3
Cooks	723	1.7	51.9	670	1.2
Dishwashers	73	0.2	28.5	183	0.3
Food counter and fountain workers	391	0.9	83.7	77	0.1
Waiters, waitresses, and helpers	1,363	3.1	80.1	338	0.6
Health service workers	1,780	4.1	89.2	215	0.4
Dental assistants	139	0.3	97.2	4	(')
Health aides and trainees (excluding nursing)	261	0.6	84.2	48	0.1
Nursing aides, orderlies, and attendants	979	2.3	86.6	152	0.3
Practical nurses	394	0.9	97.8	10	(')
Personal service workers	1,342	3.1	76.0	424	0.7
Child care workers	407	0.9	95.5	19	(')
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	515	1.2	89.3	62	0.1
Farm Workers	**489**	**1.1**	**17.8**	**2,260**	**3.9**
Farmers and farm managers	168	0.4	11.3	1,317	2.3
Farm laborers and supervisors	322	0.7	25.5	943	1.6
Farm laborers (wage workers)	154	0.4	15.9	815	1.4
Farm laborers (unpaid family workers)	165	0.4	65.0	89	0.2

' Number too small for reliable estimate.

Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

occupations which were derived from a sample survey. In data of this type, sampling errors are large. In this section, the estimates of women in nontraditional jobs are used to give an indication of trends rather than to provide absolute counts.

One of the important shifts that occurred between 1960 and 1970 in the employment of women was the influx of women into the skilled trades.[4] According to the 1970 CPS, almost one-third of a million women (332,000) were working in the skilled occupations (crafts and kindred worker group), up from 222,000 a decade earlier. By 1981 the CPS data showed that there were 802,000 women employed in these skilled trades, more than double the number in 1970 and almost four times the number in 1960.

Employment of women increased in the 1960's and 1970's in almost all the skilled trades—in construction, mechanic and repair work, and supervisory blue-collar occupations. Most individual craft jobs listed in the 1960 and 1970 censuses showed rates of increase for women that exceeded the rates of increase for men. CPS data for 1972-81 show a similar trend (see table II-4). For example, the employment of women carpenters increased from 5,000 in 1972 to 21,000 in 1981, up 300 percent, compared with a growth of less than 10 percent among male carpenters. However, the increase in the female share of carpentry was small, rising from less than 1 percent to about 2 percent of all such jobs between 1972 and 1981. Other skilled trades that posted small increases in women's share of employment in the same period included electricians, painters, construction workers, mechanics and machinists. It must be kept in mind that these estimates are very small and are used just as a general indication of trend movement in the aggregate craft and kindred worker group. Altogether, women still hold less than one of every five skilled jobs.

Women also made significant employment gains in certain other predominantly male professions such as law. Since 1972, such professions as accounting, pharmacy, computer science, and operations research no longer are nontraditional for women; women in 1981 were more than 25 percent of the total employment. The following discussion recounts some of the details of women's progress. Employment of women lawyers grew from about 12,000 in 1972 to about 79,000 in 1981, and women more than tripled their proportion of all employed lawyers (4 to 14 percent). Gains were made in the medical professions. The number of women physicians nearly doubled—34,000 to 62,000 in the 1972/81 period. In addition, the number of women dentists increased from about 2,100 to 6,000—from 2 to 5 percent of all dentists—and the number of women pharmacists rose from 16,000 to 39,000—from 13 to 26 percent between 1972 and 1981. Women in engineering increased from about 9,000 to about 68,000 between 1972 and 1981, an 800 percent increase, compared with a 33 percent growth rate for men. Employment of women accountants grew from 34,000 to 434,000 and more than doubled the growth rate for men.

Women also have made noticeable inroads into some of the traditionally male sales occupations. The employment of women insurance agents, brokers, and underwriters increased from about 51,000 in 1972 to 142,000 in 1981, and from 12 percent to 24 percent of all workers in these occupations. Women sales representatives in manufacturing industries increased from 27,000 to 83,000 over this period, from 7 to 20 percent of all workers in this area.

The category of bank officers and financial managers was the fastest growing major managerial occupation for women, largely because of new job opportunities that developed with the rapid expansion of branch banking. Women's share of total employment in this area multiplied since 1972, reaching 261,000 in 1981. By that year women made up about 38 percent of all workers employed as bank officers and financial managers.

Protective service occupations had substantial increases in female employment during the 1970's. The number of women employed as guards rose between 1972 and 1981, from 19,000 to 83,000, while the proportion of men employed as guards grew by one-third. The number of women police officers and detectives more than doubled, from 11,000 to 29,000. By 1981 women held 6 percent of these jobs.

During the 1972-1981 period, when women were entering predominantly male occupations in increasing numbers, men were making inroads into occupations where women traditionally have predominated. The number of male librarians reached 33,000 in 1981, nearly double the number in 1972. Male elementary school teachers also increased in number, reaching 232,000 in 1981.

The number of women entering traditionally male occupations undoubtedly increased, at least in part, as a result of Federal legislation and affirmative action programs (see chapter VI). As women seek such jobs, and as more men enter the traditionally female occupations, it will be interesting to note what changes, if any, the employment of greater numbers of men will bring about in the wages, unionization, and prestige in occupations where women have long predominated.

Major Occupation Groups

Professional and Technical Workers

More than 7.3 million women—about 1 out of 6 employed women—were in professional and technical occu-

[4] "Sex Stereotyping: Its Decline in Skilled Trades," Janice N. Hedges and Stephen E. Bemis, *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1974, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-4

Women as a percent of total employment in selected white-collar and blue-collar nontraditional occupations, 1972 and 1981

Occupation	Total number employed (in thousands)		Women as percent of total	
	1981	1972	1981	1972
Total	100,397	82,153	42.8	38.0
White-collar workers	**52,949**	**39,330**	**53.5**	**48.4**
Professional and technical workers	16,419	11,538	44.6	39.3
Accountants	1,126	156	38.5	21.7
Architects	94	66	4.3	3.0
Computer specialists	627	276	27.1	16.8
Computer systems analysts	213	75	25.8	10.8
Engineers	1,537	1,111	4.4	0.8
Aeronautical and astronautical	84	52	1.2	—
Chemical	67	—	1.6	—
Civil	190	156	2.5	0.6
Electrical and electronic	380	289	3.9	0.7
Industrial	237	171	11.4	2.4
Mechanical	252	192	2.8	—
Mining[1]	—	—	—	—
Lawyers and judges	581	322	14.1	[illegible]
Lawyers	558	305	14.2	4.0
Judges[1]	—	—	—	—
Life and physical scientists	311	232	21.9	10.0
Agricultural scientists[1]	—	—	—	—
Chemists	138	120	21.7	10.1
Geologists	45	—	11.1	—
Physicists[1]	—	—	—	—
Operations and systems researchers and analysts	199	112	26.1	10.8
Physicians, dentists, and related practitioners	828	630	14.4	9.3
Dentists	130	108	4.6	1.9
Optometrists[1]	—	—	—	—
Pharmacists	152	127	25.7	12.7
Physicians, medical and osteopathic	454	332	13.7	10.1
Podiatrists[1]	—	—	—	—
Veterinarians[1]	—	—	—	—
Religious workers	337	293	11.9	11.0
Social scientists	314	143	33.8	21.3
Economists	160	69	25.0	11.8
Urban and regional planners	—	—	—	—
Engineering and science technicians	1,141	835	18.8	9.1
Chemical technicians	103	77	26.2	13.0
Drafters	343	288	19.2	6.3
Electrical and electronic engineering technicians	275	166	11.3	5.5
Surveyors	92	72	1.1	—
Technicians (except health, engineering and science)	219	153	22.4	11.2
Airplane pilots	82	64	—	—
Air traffic controllers	—	—	—	—
Writers, artists and entertainers	1,388	903	39.8	31.7
Designers	218	111	29.4	18.2
Photographers	101	77	23.8	15.6
Managers and administrators (except farm)	11,540	8,081	27.5	17.6
Inspectors (except construction and public administration)	110	97	10.9	6.2
Officials of lodges, societies, and unions	117	80	29.1	18.8
Sales managers (except retail trade)	374	276	13.9	2.9
Sales workers	6,425	5,383	45.4	41.6
Insurance agents, brokers, and underwriters	595	443	23.9	11.6
Stock and bond sales agents	159	102	17.0	9.9

Table II-4 Continued

Women as a percent of total employment in selected white-collar and blue-collar nontraditional occupations, 1972 and 1981

Occupation	Total number employed (in thousands)		Women as percent of total	
	1981	1972	1981	1972
Sales workers and sales clerks (n.e.c.)	4,585	4,030	46.6	44.2
Sales representatives, manufacturing industries	416	401	20.0	6.8
Clerical workers	18,564	14,329	80.5	75.6
Dispatchers and starters, vehicle	115	86	38.3	16.3
Mail carriers, post office	242	271	15.7	6.7
Shipping and receiving clerks	525	453	22.5	14.9
Blue-collar workers	**31,261**	**28,721**	**18.8**	**16.7**
Craft and kindred workers	12,662	10,867	6.3	3.6
Automobile accessories installers'	—	—	—	—
Blue-collar worker supervisors (n.e.c.)	1,816	1,419	11.3	6.9
Brickmasons, stonemasons, and tilesetters	152	176	—	—
Cabinetmakers	75	60	2.7	5.0
Carpenters	1,122	1,052	1.9	0.5
Crane, derrick, and hoist operators	143	150	0.7	1.3
Electricians	684	498	1.6	0.6
Excavating, grading, and road machinery operators	422	428	0.5	—
Glaziers	53	—	—	—
Inspectors (n.e.c.)	143	131	8.4	3.1
Jewelers and watchmakers	46	—	—	—
Job and die setters, metal	94	94	5.3	1.1
Locomotive engineers	47	53	2.1	—
Machinists	574	379	3.8	0.5
Mechanics and repairers	3,408	2,786	1.8	0.8
Air conditioning, heating and refrigeration mechanics	212	175	0.5	—
Aircraft mechanics	123	124	3.3	—
Automobile body repairers	204	162	1.0	—
Automobile mechanics	1,045	1,040	0.6	0.5
Data processing machine repairers	100	46	7.0	2.2
Heavy equipment mechanics, including diesel	1,007	719	1.8	0.7
Household appliance and accessory installers and mechanics	132	132	4.5	1.5
Office machine repairers	75	69	4.0	—
Radio and television repairers	109	124	3.7	0.8
Railroad and car shop mechanics	60	55	1.7	—
Molders, metal	52	53	17.3	9.4
Painters, construction and maintenance	471	430	5.7	1.9
Paperhangers'	—	—	—	—
Photoengravers and lithographers'	—	—	—	—
Plumbers and pipefitters	472	391	0.4	—
Printing press operators	166	142	11.4	4.9
Roofers and slaters	139	86	—	—
Sheet metal workers and tinsmiths	157	150	3.2	0.7
Shoe repairers	—	—	—	—
Stationary engineers	182	191	1.6	1.1
Telephone installers and repairers	326	312	9.8	1.9
Telephone line workers and repairers	79	67	5.1	—
Tool-and-die makers	175	184	2.3	0.5
Operatives (except transport)	10,540	10,388	39.8	38.6
Drillers, earth	61	50	—	4.0
Drywall installers and lathers	82	84	—	1.2
Meat cutters and butchers (excluding manufacturing)	178	202	8.4	3.5

Table II-4—Continued

Women as a percent of total employment in selected white-collar and blue-collar nontraditional occupations, 1972 and 1981

Occupation	Total number employed (in thousands)		Women as percent of total	
	1981	1972	1981	1972
Mine operatives (n.e.c.)	270	144	2.2	0.7
Mixing operatives	78	99	3.8	3.0
Painters, manufactured articles	166	179	16.9	14.6
Precision machine operatives	352	390	12.8	10.0
Drill press operatives	57	75	26.3	21.3
Grinding machine operatives	134	130	10.4	5.4
Lathe and milling machine operatives	102	123	5.9	5.7
Welders and flame cutters	728	558	4.7	3.6
Transport equipment operatives	3,476	3,223	8.9	4.2
Delivery and route workers	563	895	8.5	2.5
Fork lift and tow motor operatives	369	304	5.7	1.0
Taxicab drivers and chauffeurs	164	167	9.8	9.0
Truck drivers	1,878	1,449	2.7	0.6
Nonfarm laborers	4,583	4,242	11.5	6.0
Construction laborers, including carpenters' helpers	825	948	2.2	0.5
Freight and material handlers	753	765	9.7	5.9
Gardeners and groundskeepers (except farm)	666	548	4.7	2.2
Warehouse laborers (n.e.c.)	277	152	6.1	2.0
Service workers	13,438	11,026	62.1	62.4
Private household workers	1,047	1,442	96.5	97.6
Service workers, except private household	12,165	9,584	58.9	32.8
Protective service workers	1,459	1,150	10.1	5.7
Firefighters	214	201	0.9	0.5
Guards	607	415	13.7	4.6
Police and detectives	512	418	5.7	2.6
Sheriffs and bailiffs	71	59	7.0	5.1

' Date not shown where base of percentage less than 35,000.
Note: (N.E.C.) = not elsewhere classified.
Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982 and unpublished data, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

pations in 1981. Nearly 4 million more women were employed in these occupations in 1981 than in 1972.

This large increase can be attributed to a number of social and economic developments. The school-age population continued to expand greatly (although not as rapidly as during the 1960's). This resulted in the employment of a somewhat larger number of women as teachers, other educational personnel, and librarians. Expanded health programs and enlarged medical facilities provided a greater number of jobs for women as nurses, therapists, dietitians, pharmacists, and clinical laboratory technologists and technicians, and in other professional and technical health occupations. The growth of business and industry and of Federal, State, and local governments provided more opportunities for women in such professional and technical occupations as accountant, computer specialist, and program administrator. Growth in social welfare and recreation programs helped to increase the number of women in those occupational fields.

Teaching is by far still the largest professional occupation of women. In 1981 there were more than 2.3 million women who were noncollege teachers, and they accounted for about 31 percent of all women in professional and technical occupations. However, this was a considerably lower proportion than in 1972. Furthermore, the teaching profession gained little from the extraordinary increase in women entering or returning to the labor force in the 1970's. The number of women in noncollege teaching in 1981 was only slightly greater than the 2 million who had such employment in 1972. The declining need for teachers, a result of lower birth rates, is partly responsible for this slow growth in employment.

In 1981 women accounted for nearly 84 percent of the Nation's elementary school teachers and more than half

of the secondary school teachers. More than half of the women teachers (1.2 million) were elementary teachers; 632,000 taught at the secondary level; 241,000 were pre-kindergarten and kindergarten teachers.

At the college level, there were 206,000 women teachers in 1981, an increase of almost 60 percent from 1972. They accounted for 35 percent of all teachers at the college level in 1981.

The health field also contained a large group of women in the professional and technical occupation group. In 1981 there were 1.8 million women, about one-fourth of all female professional and technical workers, in the health occupations. About 1.3 million of these women were registered nurses, compared with about 800,000 in 1972. Another large group of women (about 465,000 in 1981, up over 100 percent from 222,000 in 1972) were health technologists and technicians; most of them were clinical laboratory technicians and technologists, radiologic technologists and technicians, and dental hygienists.

The number of female physicians, dentists, and related practitioners increased sharply (over 100 percent) since 1972, compared with an increase of about 24 percent for males. However, women still account for only about 14 percent of all persons in these professions.

Other professional and technical occupations in which there were large increases of women between 1972 and 1981 were: accountant (434,000 in 1981, up nearly 200 percent); computer specialist (170,000, up nearly 300 percent); writer, artist, and entertainer (553,000, up more than 90 percent).

Managers and Administrators

More than 3.2 million women were managers or administrators in 1981, up nearly 125 percent from 1972 when 1.4 million women held such jobs. These occupations account for more than 7 percent of all jobs that women held. Among all managers and administrators, women had about 28 percent of the jobs, up from 18 percent in 1972.

About 1 out of 6 women in managerial or administrative jobs was self-employed or was an unpaid family worker, down substantially since 1972. Most of the change occurred as a result of women moving out of unpaid family work. Many unpaid family workers are in retail establishments, such as food stores, eating and drinking places, and apparel and accessory stores. Most salaried women managers also are in retail trade, where they work as restaurant, cafeteria, and bar managers and as buyers, or are small office managers; in addition, many are government administrators and school administrators. Between 1972 and 1981, all types of management positions offered growth opportunities for women, especially sales, banking and finance, buying and purchasing, and health and public administration.

Clerical Workers

Before the early 1970's, clerical work was one of the fastest growing occupations for women. CPS data show that since 1972 proportionally greater gains in the employment of women have been made in managerial, professional, and technical occupations and in skilled (craft) jobs.

Nonetheless, clerical work is still the single largest occupation group for women. Almost 15 million women, or 35 percent of all women workers, had clerical jobs in 1981. More than 80 percent of all clerical workers were women.

The number of clerical jobs has grown in recent years as a result of changes in the workplace. There has been an expansion of large and complex business and government organizations that generate increased paperwork and demands for people to operate office machines. Rapid growth in the use of computer-based technologies has created a need for persons trained to operate this equipment. Similarly, the development of the "temporary help" industry, in which workers are sent out on temporary assignments to fill clerical and other jobs, also has helped to increase the number of women in clerical jobs.

More women are in secretarial work than in any other clerical occupation. More than 3.9 million women were employed as secretaries in 1981. Another 1.6 million were typists and stenographers. Together, the three occupations accounted for about 3 out of 10 women in clerical jobs. Some 946,000 new jobs were added between 1972 and 1981. Clerical work, needed in every industry, provided the largest number of new jobs in the 1970's.[8]

There is some evidence of stagnation during the 1970's in the number of women employed as typists. Far fewer women were employed as stenographers or as telephone operators. The change from 1972 to 1981 for women employed in these occupations was: typists, from 985,000 to 993,000; stenographers, from 113,000 to 63,000; telephone operators, from 391,000 to 286,000. Telephone operator jobs are changing with the introduction of high technology switching equipment. The relative stagnation of traditional typing jobs may reflect movement from typing jobs into computer and peripheral equipment such as word processing machines. Employment of women in these newer jobs increased almost 500 percent (from 75,000 to 359,000) between 1972 and 1981. Women found employment in these jobs in increasing proportions (from 38 percent to 64 percent of all such jobs) into the early 1980's. The employment of women in the entire office machine operator group increased from 485,000 to 711,000 in the same period.

[8] "Occupational Winners and Losers: Who They Were During 1972-1980," Carol Boyd Leon, *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Other clerical occupations in which the number of women is rapidly growing are bank teller, cashier, payroll and timekeeping clerk, receptionist, shipping and receiving clerk, statistical clerk, and teacher's aide. Many of these jobs also have been impacted by changing technology.

Service Workers

The second largest occupation group in which women were employed in 1981 was service work. More than 8 million women had jobs in this field. Growth of women's employment was less than the average for all occupations between 1972 and 1981 (about 21 percent) as women moved out of private household, personal maid, and servant jobs into the occupations of waiter, protective service guard, police, and health services.

About 1.0 million of the women service workers in 1981 were in private households, down from 1.4 million in 1972. The number of women in private household work has continued to decline since 1960, as fewer women have been willing to accept these jobs because of the relatively low pay, lack of benefits, and increased opportunities in other occupations.

Women service workers other than those in private households numbered more than 7.2 million in 1981, up almost 130 percent since 1972. Women's employment in this group rose as a result of growing demands for hospital and other medical services; the increasing need for protective services in urban areas; and the more frequent use of restaurants, beauty parlors, and other services as income levels rose and as more women took jobs outside the home.

Nearly 3 out of every 4 food service workers in 1981 were women, about the same proportion as in 1972. This was the largest group of women service workers (3.1 million). More than 1.3 million were waiters; more than 722,000 were cooks; 391,000 were food, counter, and fountain workers.

More than 1.8 million women service workers were employed in health fields in 1981. Women represented 9 out of 10 workers in this occupation group. The occupations with the largest numbers of women were: nursing aide, orderly, and attendant (979,000); practical nurse (394,000); health aide (267,000); and dental assistant (140,000). The number of women working in health service occupations was up by over 35 percent since 1972, a substantially greater increase than that for all service workers during the 1972–1981 period and about equal to the growth in all jobs held by women.

About 1.3 million women were employed in personal service jobs. The largest occupation in this group was that of hairdresser and cosmetologist, with over 515,000 women employed in 1981. The greatest numerical increase for women employed in personal service occupations (outside private households) was posted by child care workers, up about 19 percent since 1972 to 407,000. Some of the other rapidly growing personal service jobs for women were barbers and welfare service aides. Cleaning service jobs made up another large group of service workers, with more than 961,000 slots. More than 528,000 of these service workers were classified as building interior cleaners, and 259,000 were janitors and sextons. Some 250,000 fewer women were employed in private-household cleaning. Growth of cleaning jobs is attached to the growth in buildings where women can be janitors and contract building cleaners.

Sales Workers

Over 2.9 million women were employed in sales jobs in 1981—about one-third more than in 1972. At the same time, total employment in sales declined 20 percent. Almost 75 percent of these women were sales clerks in retail trade in 1972, but by 1981, they were about 60 percent of the total. Meanwhile, the overwhelming majority of the 678,000 new women workers were employed in a wider variety of sales occupations. Some of the fastest growing sales positions were in advertising, wholesaling, manufacturing, insurance, services, and construction and real estate.

Craft Workers, Operatives, and Laborers

The most dramatic gains in employment among blue-collar workers have occurred among women in craft occupations (these are considered skilled jobs), while the traditionally female operative semiskilled jobs generally showed little growth. The growth in craft jobs reflected increases in a mixture of traditional and less traditional crafts, such as printing, decorating and window dressing, mechanics other than auto, telephone installers and repairers, and job and die setters. Growth in the number of women in craft jobs was up more than 100 percent between 1972 and 1981, when about 798,000 women were so employed. It is likely that women with craft jobs, regardless of type, had higher earnings than women in clerical or service occupations (see chapter III).

The number of women in operative jobs increased only marginally. Nonetheless, the largest group of women blue-collar workers—about 4.4 million—were employed as operatives in 1981. They made up about one-third of all workers in this occupation group. Most of the women worked in factories or operated equipment in laundries and drycleaning plants. They were sewers and stitchers (775,000); assemblers (612,000); packers and wrappers (372,000); and inspectors, checkers, and examiners in factories (430,000).

The largest gain in employment among women blue-collar workers was for bus drivers. Some 84,000 new women drivers were employed between 1972 and 1981. Nearly 170,000 women were employed in these jobs in

1981. Of course, many operate school buses part time, part year and for low pay. At the same time there were some increases in the employment of women in higher paying city transit systems.

Almost 530,000 blue-collar women were employed as nonfarm laborers (unskilled jobs) in 1981. Women made up over 11 percent of all workers in this group, up from 6 percent in 1972, reflecting the movement of women into traditionally male occupations.

Farm

Women farmworkers—including farmers, farm managers, farm laborers, and supervisors—numbered less than 500,000 in 1981. About one-third (189,000) were unpaid family workers. There has been a 46 percent decline in the number of women unpaid farm workers since 1972. At the same time, there was a small increase in the number and proportion of women working as paid farm laborers. As the number of farms declined and the average size of farms increased, an increased number and proportion of the remaining farm owners and managers were women.[6]

Women's Occupations by Demographic Characteristics

During the past decade, the labor force patterns of women have undergone many profound changes. The group of women in the civilian labor force, totaling some 47 million in 1981, can be classified by demographic characteristics, including age, race/ethnic group, and marital and family status. Their work experiences also vary by these same characteristics. For example, more mothers work. In March 1981, more than half of all women with children under age 18 were in the labor force. More than half of all wives were in the labor force. More families are maintained by women. Young black and white women are taking jobs that differ substantially from those of older women. Increasingly, young black women are avoiding private household and service jobs—areas that have employed large numbers of older black women—and moving into clerical jobs. More young black women also are moving into higher level white-collar jobs. Young white women are moving out of clerical jobs into higher level white-collar and the higher paying blue-collar jobs.

Marital Status—Differences among women grouped by marital characteristics have been narrowing to some extent in their employment distributions, reflecting the growth in clerical jobs as well as changes in the distribution of employment by age and race. As a result, there has been a modest movement to a more uniform distribution in major occupation groups by marital status. The most far-reaching has been the narrowing of the clerical occupation gap which saw the movement of never-married women out of clerical jobs into profesional and blue-collar occupations, while the pattern was reversed for other marital status groups—married (husband present), married (husband absent), divorced, and widowed.

Despite some shifts in the proportion of clerical jobs held, by marital status, clerical jobs are the single largest occupation group for women of any marital status, except for widowed women who were about equally as likely to hold jobs in service occupations.[7] The proportion of never-married women in clerical occupations dropped from 41 percent to about 36 percent between 1970 and 1981, while the proportion of married (husband present) and divorced women in these occupations increased modestly to about 35 percent each, over the period. The largest increases in clerical workers, however, were posted both among married (husband absent) and widowed women—from 27 to 32 percent for the former and 23 to 29 percent for the latter between 1970 and 1981. These women also posted sizeable declines in service and operative jobs (see table II-5). Only among never-married women was there some increase in the proportion in jobs in service occupations, while their proportion in operative jobs also declined.

Age—In March 1981 there were almost 22 million employed women 16 to 34 years of age, and over 21 million employed women 35 years of age or older (table II-6). A higher proportion of the younger women (38 percent) were employed in clerical jobs than were older women (32 percent). This age difference was particularly apparent among minority women where 39 percent of the younger group were clerical workers, compared with 20 percent of the older women. Younger women, who were more likely to have higher educational attainment than older women, moved into other white-collar occupations as well as into skilled and semiskilled blue-collar jobs once they gained work experience. On the other hand, older women often reentered the labor force in clerical jobs or moved from service to clerical occupations. Many, with limited educational attainment, remained in the service and operative occupations.

A higher percentage of women 35 years of age and over than of younger women were in managerial and administrative occupations (9 and 6 percent, respectively). Promotion to these positions is based largely on experience, but a growing number of workers have been hired as managers directly from business management

[6] *American Farm Women: Findings From a National Survey*, National Opinion Research Corporation for the U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1981.

[7] "Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers, 1970 to 1978." Beverly L. Johnson, *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1979, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-5

Major occupation groups of employed women, by marital status, March 1970 and 1981

Occupation	Never-married		Married, husband present		Married, husband absent		Divorced		Widowed	
	1970	1981	1970	1981	1970	1981	1970	1981	1970	1981
All occupation groups:										
Number (in thousands)	6,490	10,291	17,665	23,995	1,339	1,816	1,825	4,508	2,475	2,276
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical workers	17.6	16.7	15.5	18.3	8.6	15.6	12.7	16.9	9.9	9.4
Managers and administrators	2.5	5.4	4.6	7.8	2.0	6.4	5.5	10.0	7.4	8.6
Sales workers	6.6	7.6	7.1	6.5	3.9	3.5	4.5	4.7	7.7	9.6
Clerical workers	41.2	36.5	33.6	35.3	26.7	32.2	34.7	33.8	23.2	29.0
Craft workers	0.6	1.2	1.3	1.9	1.0	2.0	0.9	2.5	1.1	1.7
Operatives (including transport)	8.5	7.0	16.4	11.0	20.1	10.9	15.8	10.6	15.4	12.0
Nonfarm laborers	0.5	1.4	0.3	1.0	0.7	1.4	0.5	1.4	0.6	0.9
Service workers	21.8	23.7	19.4	17.0	36.2	27.3	25.2	19.8	32.8	28.2
Private household	7.3	3.1	3.5	1.9	10.1	4.2	5.5	1.9	12.7	6.7
All other service	14.7	20.6	15.9	15.1	26.1	23.1	19.7	17.9	20.1	21.5
Farmworkers	0.4	0.5	1.8	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.2	0.3	1.9	0.7

Source: U.S Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: March 1981 Current Population Survey, marital and family tabulations.

Table II-6

Major occupation groups of employed women, by selected age groups, March 1981

Major occupation group	16 to 34	35 years and over
All occupation groups:		
Number (in thousands)	21,720	21,165
Percent	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical workers	17.3	17.0
Managers and administrators (except farm)	6.0	8.9
Sales workers	6.5	6.7
Clerical workers	38.2	31.7
Craft and kindred workers	1.6	1.9
Operatives	8.4	11.8
Laborers (except farm)	1.3	1.0
Private household workers	2.2	2.8
Service workers (except private household)	17.9	16.9
Farm workers	0.6	1.2

Source: Unpublished marital and family tabulations, March 1981, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

schools. For both groups of women, the proportion of employment in these occupations has grown since 1973.

The proportion of women 35 years of age or older who had operative jobs (12 percent) is greater than the proportion for younger women (8 percent). This difference is especially sharp between younger and older white women. For both groups of women, the proportion in operative jobs has declined since 1973.

Minority Race Women—Of all employed women in 1981, 37.4 million were white and 5.6 million were members of minority races.[8] The occupational distribution of minority race women differed from that of white women (table II-7), but these differences have narrowed since 1973 (chart II-2), largely as a result of the changing occupational patterns of young black women. The strong growth in white-collar clerical occupations during the 1970's aided the movement of women into these jobs. Moreover, increased educational attainment and training of women, as well as increased work experience, found women ready to take on new and, relative to their experience, better jobs. This was particularly so among young minority women who by 1981 were as likely as young white women to hold clerical jobs. Young minority women under age 35 are much more likely than those over 35 to be clerical workers and less likely to be private household workers (chart II-3).

Among minority race women, over 50 percent were in white-collar jobs in 1981 compared with more than 68 percent of white women. In each white-collar occupation group there was also a smaller proportion of minority women than of white women. Nearly 30 percent of minority race women were in clerical jobs, up from less than 25 percent in 1973. The proportion of white women employed in clerical jobs remained essentially unchanged—(about 36 percent) in 1973 and 1981.

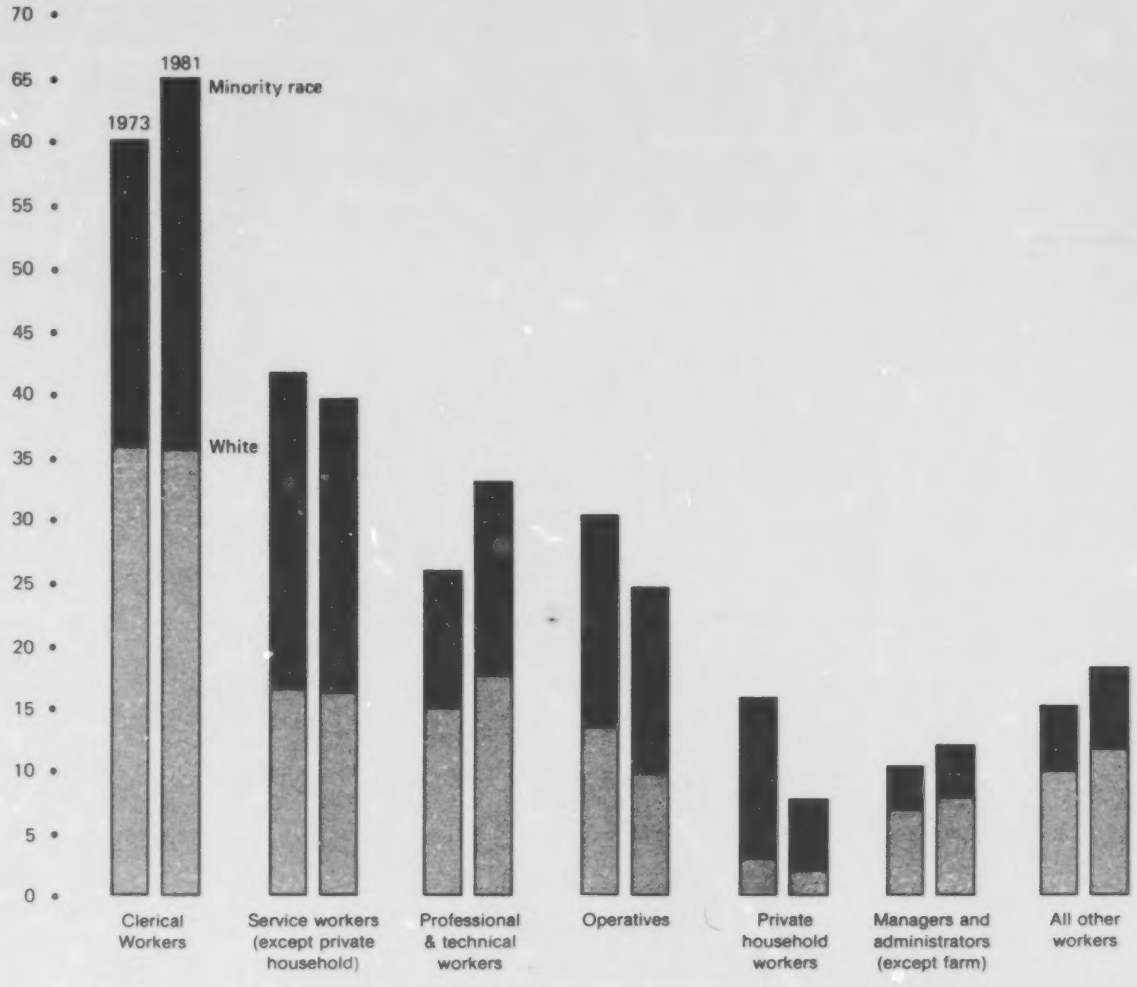
More than 4 percent of employed minority race women in 1981 were managers or administrators, about

[8] In this section, minority race women denotes black, American Indian, Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, and women of all other races except white.

Chart II-2.

There are differences in the distribution of minority race and white women by occupation, but the differences are narrowing.

Distribution of employment of white and minority race women, by occupation group, 1973 and 1981.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

half the proportion of white women in these jobs. The percentage of minority race women in this occupation has increased since the early 1970's, when about 2 percent were managers or administrators.

About 30 percent of minority race women were service workers (including private household workers), or nearly twice the proportion for white women. A higher proportion of minority women (18 percent) than white women (13 percent) were in blue-collar jobs as operatives, or laborers. Only about 1 percent of minority race and of white women were employed in farm jobs, a declining occupation.

One indication that the difference in the occupational distribution of white women and minority race women will narrow significantly in the 1980's can be seen in a comparison of the occupational distribution of women who were 16 to 34 years old and those 35 years and over in March 1981 (table II-7). Among younger minority race women, 62 percent were employed in white-collar jobs, up from 55 percent in 1973. In the older group, 36

Table II-7

Major occupation groups of employed women by race and selected age groups, annual averages, 1981

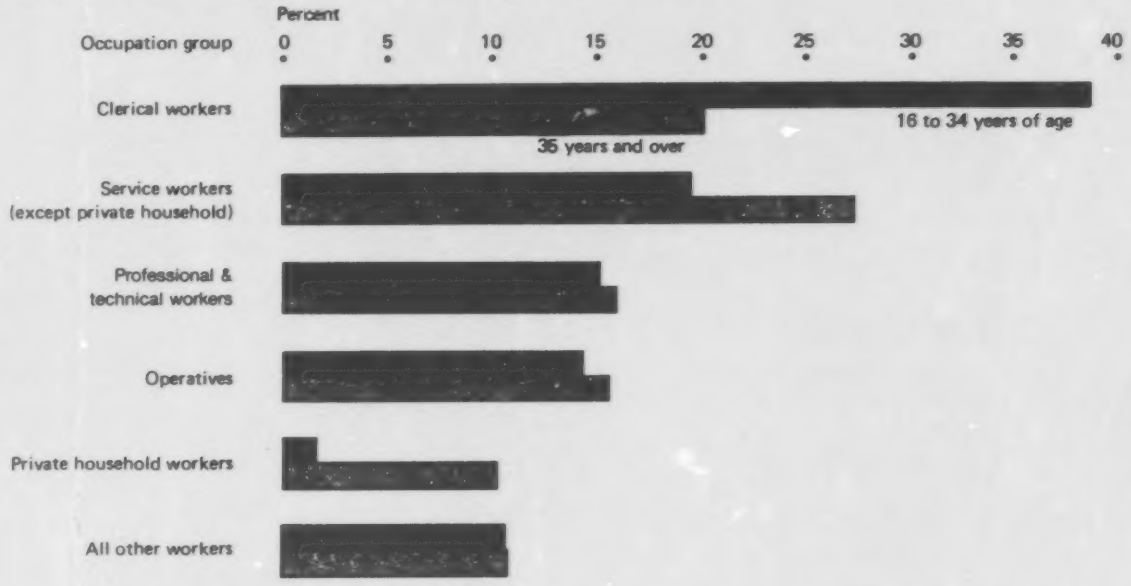
Major occupation group	White		Minority races	
	16 to 34 years	35 years and over	16 to 34 years	35 years and over
All occupation groups:				
Number (in thousands)	19,098	18,296	2,845	2,761
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical workers	17.5	17.0	15.1	15.9
Managers and administrators (except farm)	6.1	9.7	3.6	4.9
Sales workers	7.1	7.5	4.1	2.3
Clerical workers	37.1	33.9	38.7	20.1
Craft and kindred workers	1.8	2.0	1.4	1.6
Operatives	8.2	11.5	14.4	15.5
Laborers (except farm)	1.5	0.9	1.2	1.3
Private household workers	2.0	1.6	1.6	10.2
Service workers (except private household)	17.7	14.4	19.5	27.5
Farm workers	0.9	1.6	0.4	0.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Chart II-3.

Minority race women under age 35 are much more likely than those 35 and over to be clerical workers and less likely to be private household workers.

Distribution of employed minority race women by major occupation group, March 1981.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

percent had white-collar jobs, up from 32 percent in 1973. About 68 percent of white women in both age groups had white-collar jobs, up modestly from 65 and 63 percent, respectively.

In 1981 the percentage of minority race women under 35 years old who were in clerical jobs (39 percent) was slightly above that of young white women (37 percent). While there is this strong trend by some young minority women to move into white-collar clerical jobs, large numbers of young white women are moving out of clerical work into professional and technical, managerial, and skilled blue-collar occupations.

The proportion of minority women in private household employment is declining for both age groups. Less than 2 percent of minority race women in the young age group were private household workers, equal to the proportion of young white women so employed, compared with 10 percent of older minority women. The smaller percentage of young women in private household work reflects the rising education level of these women, greater opportunities to enter other fields as discrimination lessens, and the unwillingness of young women to accept the relatively low-paying jobs.

The occupations of American Indian, Aleut, and Eskimo women are discussed in chapter 1.

Hispanic Women—Current Population Survey data also provide information on the employment status of persons of Hispanic origin in the United States. This information is reported separately for persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and other Hispanic Origin.

Since data on persons of Hispanic origin are tabulated separately without regard to race/color, persons of Spanish origin are also included in CPS data for white and minority race workers. According to the 1970 census, about 96 percent of the population with Hispanic origin is included in the white data.[9]

Of the more than 4.8 million women of Hispanic origin in the United States who were 16 years of age or older in 1981, about 2.3 million—more than 48 percent—were in the labor force. More than 50 percent were in white-collar jobs, over 25 percent were in blue-collar jobs, more than 20 percent were in service occupations, and less than 2 percent were in farm jobs (table II-8).

Hispanic women have posted strong gains in employment since the early 1970's, and there have been substantial increases in the proportion who work in white-collar occupations (from 42 percent in 1973 to over 50 percent in 1981). However, there has been little or no change over this period in the proportion of Hispanic women in service and farm occupations.

The largest proportion of Hispanic women were in clerical work (about 32 percent), followed closely by operative (22 percent) and service work (21 percent). Less than 3 percent were employed as craft workers and non-farm laborers. The increase in proportion of Hispanic women in clerical occupations (up from 27 percent in 1973) reflects the increase in clerical employment among younger women generally since 1973, increases in educational attainment, the effects of training and educational programs designed for the Hispanic community, and the effects of affirmative action programs.

There were some differences between the occupational distribution of women of Puerto Rican origin and that of other Hispanic women. Women of Puerto Rican origin had the largest proportion of clerical jobs (36 percent) compared with 32 percent for all women of Hispanic origin. The proportions of Puerto Rican and Cuban women in service occupations (13 percent and 18 percent, respectively) were smaller than the proportions for women of Mexican and other Hispanic origin.

The occupational distribution of women of Hispanic origin was significantly different in 1981 from that of all white or all minority race women. A smaller proportion of Hispanic women (almost 9 percent) were employed in professional and technical occupations than the proportion of all white women (over 17 percent) or of all minority race women (almost 16 percent). The proportion of Hispanic women in clerical jobs (32 percent) also was lower than the proportion of white women (36 percent), but was higher than that for minority race women (29 percent). A much smaller percentage of Hispanic women were in service jobs (21 percent) than were all minority race women (30 percent). The proportion of white women in service occupations (about 17 percent) was still lower than that of Hispanic women.

Class of Worker

In addition to being classified by occupation, the female work force can be distributed by four classes of workers—the self-employed, unpaid family workers, government employees, and employees of private business and industry.

By far the largest class of employed women (75 percent) received wages or salaries in the private sector of the economy (table II-9). Government employees are the second largest class (19 percent) of women workers. In 1981, 8.0 million women were employed by local, State, or Federal governments, up about 1 million since 1973. About 519,000 women were unpaid family workers in 1981, down from 760,000 in 1973. These were wives and children who were on a family farm or who worked in some other family business. About one-third of women unpaid family workers were in agriculture; most of the others were employed in retail trade.

Only 6 percent (2.4 million) of women workers were self-employed in 1981. Most of these women (2.2 mil-

[9] "A Profile of Hispanics in the U.S. Work Force" Morris Newman, *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1978, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-8

Employment status and major occupation groups of Hispanic-origin women in the United States, by origin, annual averages, 1981

Employment status and occupation	All Hispanic origin	Mexican origin	Puerto Rican origin	Cuban origin	Other Hispanic origin[1]
Total (in thousands)	4,798	2,807	652	381	958
In civilian labor force (in thousands)	2,328	1,375	226	201	526
Percent	48.5	49.0	34.7	52.8	54.9
Employed (in thousands)	2,076	1,220	198	183	475
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar workers	50.5	49.9	57.1	51.9	49.2
Professional and technical workers	8.8	8.0	11.6	9.8	9.3
Managers and administrators (except farm)	4.7	4.3	6.1	5.5	5.1
Sales workers	5.1	5.2	3.0	4.9	5.7
Clerical workers	31.9	32.4	36.4	31.7	29.1
Blue-collar workers	26.4	26.7	29.3	32.2	21.8
Craft and kindred workers	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.1
Operatives	22.4	22.0	26.3	29.5	18.9
Nonfarm laborers	1.6	2.2	0.5	0.5	0.8
Service workers	21.4	21.1	13.1	17.5	29.3
Farmer workers	1.6	2.5	0.5	—	0.6
Farmers and farm managers	0.1	—	—	—	0.4
Farm laborers and supervisors	1.5	2.5	0.5	—	0.2

[1] Includes persons of Central or South American and other Hispanic origin.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

lion) were in services and retail trade. Only about 196,000 of the self-employed women were in agriculture.

Employment by Industry

Payroll statistics from nonagricultural industries, published monthly by BLS, provide additional information on the employment of women. These data permit more precise industry identification than does the monthly Current Population Survey on which the discussion of employment by occupation earlier in this chapter was based.[19]

In the CPS approach, employed persons holding more than one job are counted only once and are classified according to the job at which they worked the greatest number of hours during the survey week. In the payroll series, persons who worked in more than one establishment during the reporting period are counted each time

Table II-9

Employed women, by class of worker, 1981

Class of worker	Number (in thousands)	Percent
Total	43,000	100.0
Self-employed workers	2,388	5.6
Agriculture	196	0.5
Nonagricultural industries	2,192	5.1
Unpaid family workers	519	1.2
Agriculture	176	0.4
Nonagricultural industries	343	0.8
Government workers	8,013	18.6
Private wage and salary workers	32,081	74.6
Agriculture	296	0.7
Nonagricultural industries	31,785	73.9

Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[19] These data are based on the 1980 industry employment benchmark. Establishment data are based on payroll records compiled monthly from mail questionnaires by BLS in cooperation with State agencies. The payroll survey provides detailed industry information on wage and salary employees in nonagricultural establishments. The CPS definition for nonagricultural employment is persons in nonagricultural industries who were wage and salary workers (including domestics and other private household workers), self-employed, or unpaid and working 15 hours or more during the survey week in family-operated enterprises.

their names appear on payrolls. For example, workers may be counted more than once if they hold two jobs concurrently or leave one job for another during the same reference period, and thus they appear on the payrolls of both employers.

Table II-10 shows the annual average number of women employed by eight major industries and in selected industry divisions for 1973 and 1981. The percentage that women are of total employment in each industry is also shown.

In 1981 there were about 39 million women on nonagricultural payrolls, or about 10 million more than in 1973. Women made up 43 percent of total employment in nonagricultural industries in 1981, compared with 38 percent in 1973.

The rate of increase in the employment of women from 1973-81 was much faster than the rate for men. More than three-fourths of the increase for women workers was in three major industry divisions that had the fastest growth. The increases were: services, 3.9 million; government, 1.7 million, and wholesale and retail trade, 2.3 million.

Differences in Industry Distribution of Women and Men Workers

The distribution of women in the eight major nonagricultural industry divisions was much different from that of men (table II-11). Twice the percentage of women than men were employed in finance, insurance, and real estate; and services. A much higher percentage of men than women were employed in mining, construction, manufacturing, and transportation and public utilities.

Service—In the late 1960's, services became the largest industry division in the employment of women workers, a trend that has continued. By 1981 nearly 11 million women were employed in services—an increase of 56 percent since 1973. Within the service industry, 59 percent of the employees were women compared with 55 percent in 1973.

Wholesale and Retail Trade—This industry is the second largest employer of women. Women make up more than two-fifths of all workers in retail trade and a quarter of the workers in wholesale trade. In 1981 the employment of women in this industry totaled 9.0 million or 35 percent more than in 1973.

Most of these women (7.6 million) were in retail trade, where the largest employers of women were eating and drinking places (2.7 million women workers, up 59 percent since 1973) and general merchandise stores (1.5 million, unchanged since 1973). Women made up two-thirds of the workers in department stores and clothing and accessory shops; three-fifths of the workers in drug stores; more than half of the workers in eating and drinking places; and more than two-fifths of the workers in food stores. These proportions have been fairly stable for the last decade despite the tremendous rise in employment in this industry category, an indication of the persistence of the occupational segregation of women.

Government—In 1981 about 20 percent of all women on nonfarm payrolls (7.7 million) were government employees, up from 6.0 million in 1973—an increase of 28 percent. Less than half of the increased employment occurred in the education sectors of local and State governments. The largest number (5.2 million) of women were employed by local governments, primarily in schools. States came next in the number of women workers (1.6 million), followed by the Federal Government (878,000).

Women's share of total government employment rose from 44 to 48 percent between 1973 and 1981. The rate of increase for women was faster than the rate for men.

Manufacturing—Manufacturing still employs the largest share of the male work force but is only fourth in the employment of women. In 1981 there were 6.3 million women workers in this industry. About 31 percent of all manufacturing workers in 1981 were women. Women made up 25 percent of all employment in the durable goods industries and about 41 percent of the employment in nondurable goods.

Women's employment in manufacturing increased only about 8 percent between 1973 and 1981 compared with an increase of about 35 percent in the employment of women by all nonagricultural industries. Manufacturing has been generally on the decline, particularly during the latter half of the 1970's as trade competition impacts were felt.

Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate—This industry division became predominantly female during the 1960's and early 1970's. The number of women workers increased by more than 50 percent during those years. Since 1973, the industry's employment of women rose by another 48 percent, to 3.2 million workers in 1981. More than 6 out of 10 women in this industry were employed in banking and insurance. The fastest growing industries for women, however, were in credit agencies, other than banks; security; commodity; and insurance brokerage and service.

Other Industry Divisions—More than 1.3 million women were employed in transportation and public utilities in 1981, or nearly 36 percent more than in 1973. Almost half of the women were in the communications industry, largely in telephone communications.

Women made up about 10 percent of total employment in construction and mining. However, there was a great expansion in the employment of women in these areas from 1973 to 1981; from 43,000 to 129,000 in mining and from 241,000 to 380,000 in construction.

EEOC Industry and Occupation Data

As part of its mandate under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (see chapter VI for details on title

Table II-10

Women employees on nonagricultural payrolls, by selected industries, annual averages, 1973 and 1981

Industry group	1981		1973	
	Number (in thousands)	As percent of total employed	Number (in thousands)	As percent of total employed
Total nonagricultural industries	39,019	42.8	28,988	37.7
Private	**31,297**	**41.7**	**22,978**	**36.4**
Mining	129	11.4	43	6.7
Construction	380	9.1	241	5.9
Manufacturing	6,341	31.4	5,865	29.1
Durable goods	3,038	25.1	2,573	21.6
Fabricated metal products	336	21.1	313	19.0
Machinery (except electrical)	509	20.3	335	16.0
Electrical and electronic equipment	893	42.7	817	41.5
Transportation equipment	307	16.2	227	11.8
Instruments and related products	309	42.5	226	40.6
Miscellaneous manufacturing	192	46.7	205	45.2
Nondurable goods	3,303	41.0	3,292	39.8
Food and kindred products	501	29.9	463	27.0
Meat products	116	32.8	99	29.5
Poultry dressing plants	60	52.2	50	54.3
Preserved fruits and vegetables	101	42.1	104	41.6
Confectionery and related products	43	40.2	42	35.6
Tobacco manufacturers	25	35.7	32	41.0
Textile mills	391	47.5	469	46.4
Knitting mills	139	64.1	170	63.4
Apparel and other textile products	1,004	80.7	1,159	80.6
Printing and publishing	507	40.0	383	31.5
Periodicals	57	59.4	34	52.3
Blankbooks and bookbinding	34	54.0	30	50.8
Chemicals and allied products	284	25.7	221	21.3
Leather and leather products	139	59.7	173	60.9
Transportation and public utilities	1,339	26.0	987	21.2
Communication	648	46.8	544	46.1
Telephone communication	554	51.5	496	50.6
Radio and television broadcasting	68	32.7	36	25.0
Wholesale and retail trade	8,991	43.7	6,682	40.2
Wholesale trade	1,396	26.0	989	23.1
Retail trade	7,595	50.0	5,692	46.2
General merchandise stores	1,472	65.7	1,548	69.4
Food stores	1,064	43.1	683	36.8
Apparel and accessory stores	673	69.7	525	66.0
Eating and drinking places	2,661	56.1	1,675	54.8
Miscellaneous retail stores	1,070	54.6	759	48.9
Drug stores and proprietary stores	315	63.1	273	59.2
Finance, insurance, and real estate	3,159	59.6	2,138	52.8
Banking	1,157	71.1	773	65.6
Credit agencies other than banks	401	68.5	241	57.8
Security, commodity brokers and services	111	42.5	67	34.9
Insurance carriers	752	61.0	566	52.8
Insurance agents, brokers, and service	293	62.9	179	57.4
Real estate	369	37.3	257	33.6

Table II-10

Women employees on nonagricultural payrolls, by selected industries, annual averages, 1973 and 1981

Industry group	1981		1973	
	Number (in thousands)	As percent of total employed	Number (in thousands)	As percent of total employed
Services	10,959	58.9	7,023	54.6
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels	583	54.2	418	51.7
Personal services	632	69.1	580	64.0
Business services	1,420	43.6	749	38.7
Advertising	74	47.4	49	39.8
Credit reporting and collection	54	72.0	61	75.3
Services to buildings	196	38.1	121	33.2
Health services	4,519	81.4	2,919	80.2
Hospitals	2,346	80.9	1,611	78.5
Legal services	376	70.7	213	72.2
Educational services	620	52.9	440	45.1
Elementary and secondary schools	195	63.7	125	52.3
Colleges and universities	358	47.8	268	41.6
Government	**7,722**	**48.2**	**6,010**	**43.8**
Federal	878	31.7	780	29.3
State	1,650	45.7	1,216	41.6
State education	664	47.3	516	42.8
Other State government	986	41.8	700	40.7
Local	5,194	53.9	4,014	49.3
Local education	3,397	65.2	2,729	60.1
Other local government	1,797	37.9	1,285	35.6

Source: *Employment and Earnings, United States 1909-78*, and Supplement to Employment and Earnings Revised Establishment Data, June 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-11

Distribution of employment of women and men in nonagricultural industries, annual averages, 1981

Industry division	Women		Men	
	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution
Total	39,019	100.0	52,086	100.0
Mining	129	0.3	1,003	1.9
Construction	380	1.0	3,796	7.3
Manufacturing	6,341	16.3	13,832	26.6
Transportation and public utilities	1,339	3.4	3,818	7.3
Wholesale and retail trade	8,991	23.0	11,560	22.2
Finance, insurance, and real estate	3,159	8.1	2,142	4.1
Services	10,959	28.1	7,633	14.7
Government	7,722	19.8	8,302	15.9

Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table II-12

EEO-1 private industry employment of women, by race/ethnic group, 1979[1]

(Numbers in thousands)

Major industry division	Total employment	Women							
		Number	As percent of total	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian American/ Pacific Islander	American Indian/ Alaskan Native
Total	33,862			33,862	27,567	3,932	1,761	463	139
Women		13,598		13,598	10,843	1,808	678	222	47
Percent of total			40.2	40.2	39.3	46.0	38.5	47.9	33.8
Percent distribution				100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mining	619	65	10.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	1.7
Construction	562	48	8.6	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.9
Manufacturing	15,396	4,705	30.6	34.6	34.0	36.2	41.7	29.3	40.4
Durable goods	9,600	2,472	25.8	18.2	18.1	17.4	21.4	17.1	21.3
Nondurable goods	5,796	2,233	38.5	16.4	15.9	18.8	20.4	12.2	19.1
Transportation and public utilities	3,368	896	26.6	6.6	6.6	7.1	5.3	5.4	6.4
Trade	5,959	3,031	50.9	22.3	23.5	17.2	19.2	15.3	19.1
Wholesale	1,326	376	28.3	2.8	2.9	2.2	2.7	2.3	4.3
Retail	4,633	2,655	57.3	19.5	20.6	15.0	16.5	13.1	14.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2,521	1,579	62.6	11.6	11.7	10.8	11.2	15.8	8.5
Services	5,307	3,236	61.0	23.8	23.1	27.9	20.5	32.9	19.1
Agriculture	131	38	28.7	0.3	0.2	0.3	1.3	0.5	0.4

[1]The EEO-1 report is required of employers of 100 or more persons by the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Source: *EEOC 1979 Report Minorities and Women in Private Industry*, U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

VII), the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) requires annual reports from the larger private employers under its jurisdiction indicating the makeup of their work force by sex and by race/ethnic categories. The published data from this employer survey (EEO-1 survey) cover employers who have 100 or more employees. The data are reported by sex of workers under nine occupational categories for each of four minority groups: Black, Hispanic, Asian American/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaskan native.[11]

EEOC's survey data are the only source of comprehensive (annual) employment statistics for minorities and women in private industry, by occupational categories, for the United States and for States, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's), and smaller geographical areas such as counties. The data are particularly valuable in the case of small minority groups—Asian American and American Indians—who generally are not separately tabulated or identified except in the decennial census. In addition, special disaggregations and cross-tabulations are available from EEOC upon request.

However, the data have some limitations for purposes of studying industrial and occupational distribution of women. Employers of fewer than 100 persons are not covered, and multi-establishment employers must file individual reports only for establishments with 25 or more workers. Industries such as agriculture, construction, trade, and services are characterized by small establishments and have particularly low coverage in the EEOC data compared with the manufacturing or transportation/communication/public utilities sectors.

Despite these limitations, which affect the data for both aggregate employment and employment by industry, the proportions and percentage distributions of women and minorities by occupation and industry in the EEOC data reflect patterns that are not significantly different from those found in data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which were discussed earlier in this chapter. Table II-12 shows the industry distribution and table II-13 shows the occupational distribution of women workers covered by the EEO-1 survey. These tables are included here to give some indication of the relative occupational status of minority women, particularly Asian American and American Indian women.

Women in Federal Civil Service

In October 1980 more than 767,000 women were full-time Federal white-collar workers, and they made up about 39 percent of the Federal white-collar work force.

[11] *EEOC 1979 Report: Minorities and Women in Private Industry*, 2 vols. September 1981, U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Table II-13

EEO-1 occupational employment in private industry, by race/ethnic group, 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Major occupation group	Total employment	Women							
		Number	As percent of total	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian American/ Pacific Islander	American Indian/ Alaskan Native
Total	34,076			34,076	27,629	3,943	1,845	516	143
Women		13,961		13,961	11,081	1,857	724	249	50
Percent of total			41.0	41.0	40.1	47.1	39.2	48.3	35.0
Percent distribution				100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar workers	**17,258**	**8,701**	**50.4**	**62.3**	**66.4**	**45.4**	**44.6**	**63.1**	**50.0**
Officials and managers	3,743	693	18.5	5.0	5.6	2.5	2.6	3.6	6.0
Professional	3,242	1,205	37.2	8.6	9.5	4.2	3.2	18.1	6.0
Technical	1,845	741	40.2	5.3	5.4	5.0	3.5	7.2	4.0
Sales	3,041	1,604	52.7	11.5	12.5	7.2	8.7	6.4	8.0
Office and clerical	5,386	4,458	82.8	31.9	33.3	26.6	26.7	26.1	28.0
Blue-collar workers	**13,786**	**3,579**	**26.0**	**25.8**	**23.1**	**34.2**	**41.9**	**26.1**	**36.0**
Craft	4,229	405	9.6	2.9	2.8	3.2	4.3	3.2	4.0
Operative	6,868	2,262	32.9	16.2	14.7	21.8	23.5	17.3	22.0
Nonfarm laborers	2,669	912	34.2	6.5	5.6	9.3	14.1	5.6	10.0
Service workers	**3,052**	**1,681**	**55.1**	**12.0**	**10.6**	**20.4**	**13.7**	**11.2**	**14.0**

The EEO-1 report is required of employers of 100 or more persons by the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.
Source: Unpublished data, U.S Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Women's proportion of all Federal employment in 1978 was as high as it was in 1944, during World War II (table II-14) and had moved higher by 1980.

Women continue to be concentrated in the lower civil service grades (table II-15). In October 1980 women accounted for nearly three-fourths (74 percent) of all employees in General Schedule (GS) and equivalent grades 1 to 6 (the lowest paid grades), 33 percent in grades 7 to 12, and only 8 percent in the highest grades of 13 and above. However, in recent years there has been some dramatic upward movement of women in the Federal grade structure. Between 1975 and 1980, for example, the women's rates of increase in grades 7 to 12 and grades 13 and above were considerably higher than the rates for men. The number of women in the "supergrade" category (GS 16 and above) declined sharply after 1975. Most of the slowed growth in Federal employment was at the higher grade levels and among men.

Women, on the average, were younger than men and had fewer years of Federal service. The average age of Federal civilian employees in the executive branch (the largest group of full-time permanent employees) was 40.0 years for women and 43.7 years for men in 1978. The average length of service for women was 10.8 years compared with 16.6 years for men.

Grade categories	Percentage change in employment 1975–80	
	Women	Men
All grades	10.4	– 2.3
GS 1 to 6	– 0.6	– 14.2
GS 7 to 12	33.8	– 1.5
GS 13 and above	72.9	4.7
GS 16–18 (supergrades)	– 41.4	– 63.8

Chart II-4 shows women's share of employment, by occupation, in Federal white-collar jobs in October 1980. Women are heavily overrepresented in general administrative, clerical, and office services where 70 percent of the employees are women. The overwhelming majority of these women were clerk-stenographers or general clerical and administrative workers. Smaller numbers of women were mail and file clerks or telephone operators, computer specialists, computer aide technicians, and computer operators.

Table II-14

Women in Federal civil service, selected years, 1939-80[1]

Year		Number	As percent of total employment
1980		767,117	38.6
1978		737,458	37.0
1977		721,136	36.5
1976		710,596	35.9
1975		696,604	35.3
1974		682,490	34.9
1973		643,647	34.0
1972		671,150	33.7
1970		654,450	33.1
1968		664,497	34.0
1958		533,001	24.0
1952	(Korean conflict)	601,215	25.0
1947	(return of World War II veterans)	444,194	24.0
1944	(World War II peak)	1,110,545	37.0
1939		172,733	19.0

[1]Data are for October of each year except 1944 (July) and 1958 (December). Years 1939-58 refer to civilian employees in the continental United States. Data for the years 1968-73 include full-time white-collar employees with the following exceptions: foreign nationals employed overseas; Board of Governors, Federal Reserve System; members and employees of Congress; National Security Agency; Central Intelligence Agency; White House Office; Architect of the Capitol; Botanic Gardens; ungraded employees in the judicial branch.

Source: U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Work Force Analysis and Statistics Division.

As in the private sector, men are beginning to move into Federal clerk-typist, clerk-stenographer, and telephone operator jobs, and the number of women is gradually declining in these occupations.

Women white-collar workers made up 65 percent of all employees in medical and dental occupations and in library and archives work in the Federal Government. Most of the women in medical and dental jobs were nurses and nursing assistants, the traditional occupations for women. Most of the women in postal work were postal distribution clerks (sorters, etc.) and window clerks.

More than 63,000 women Federal workers were in accounting and budget occupations, mainly working as accounting clerks, accounting technicians, and tax accountants. Large numbers of women also were employed as supply clerks, legal claim clerks, personnel assistants, procurement clerks and technicians, social insurance administrative workers, educators, editorial assistants, statistical assistants, biomedical technicians, librarians, and chemists.

Federal employment of minority women nearly doubled during the 1970's, reaching 242,708 in 1980, up from 116,843 in 1972. Moreover, each race/ethnic group for which data are tabulated by the Office of Personnel Management experienced substantial employment gains between 1972 and 1980:

	November 1980	November 1972
Minority women employees		
Total	242,708	116,843
Black	192,519	94,000
Hispanic	26,726	10,982
American Indian	12,789	7,650
Asian American	10,674	4,211

By 1980 black women made up nearly 30 percent of women in Federal white-collar jobs. Women of Hispanic origin constituted 4 percent of the female white-collar work force in the Federal Government and American Indian women and Asian American women, 2 percent each.

See chapter VI on laws affecting women in Federal employment.

Women in the Armed Forces

Except during World War II, women have had a limited role in the Armed Forces of the United States. From the mid-1940's to the early 1970's, women constituted less than 2 percent of the Nation's total military strength and were confined largely to health care in administrative occupations.[12]

The low proportion of women was fortified by legislation. When the Women's Armed Services Integration Act (62 Stat. 356) was enacted in 1948 in order to institutionalize the use of women in military service, these limits were established: enlisted women were not to exceed 2 percent of total enlisted strength, and female officers (excluding nurses) were not to exceed 10 percent of female enlisted strength. These ceilings remained in effect for 20 years. However, even when a 1967 law (81 Stat. 374) struck down the 2 percent limitation and altered provisions for the 1948 act that limited career opportunities for women officers, women continued to make up less than 2 percent of total U.S. military strength for the rest of the decade.

In 1972 the Department of Defense made the decision to increase the use of women in the Armed Forces. This decision was spurred by concerns that the end of the draft might result in shortages of male recruits, and by the growth of the women's movement and changing perceptions about the role of women in society.[13]

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[12] *Women and the Military, Studies in Defense Policy*, Martin Binkin and Shirley J. Bach, the Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., 1977.

[13] For a discussion of the history of women in the Armed Forces and of planning for increased utilization, see *Utilization of Military Women*. Central All-Volunteer Task Force, 1972. U.S. Department of Defense, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower and Reserve Affairs). Also see *Use of Women in the Military*. Second edition, 1978, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics).

Table II-15

Number and percent of women in full-time Federal white-collar employment, by general schedule and equivalent grades, October 31, 1980

General schedule grade[1]	Total employment	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As a percent of total
Total, all pay systems[2]	1,985,057	767,117	100.0	38.6
GS and equivalent	1,472,887	663,962	100.0	45.1
01 ($7,960-$9,954)	3,133	2,324	0.4	74.2
02 (8,951-11,265)	17,454	13,284	2.0	76.1
03 (9,766-12,700)	82,989	63,095	9.5	76.0
04 (10,963-14,248)	173,339	133,934	20.2	77.3
05 (12,266-15,947)	194,082	137,894	20.8	71.0
06 (13,672-17,776)	90,349	65,543	9.9	72.5
07 (15,193-19,747)	135,022	72,158	10.9	53.4
08 (16,826-21,875)	31,048	16,198	2.4	52.2
09 (18,585-24,165)	162,421	66,367	10.0	40.9
10 (20,467-26,605)	28,782	10,774	1.6	37.4
11 (22,486-29,236)	165,558	40,214	6.1	24.3
12 (26,951-35,033)	169,239	24,246	3.7	14.3
13 (32,048-41,660)	117,931	11,228	1.7	9.5
14 (37,871-49,229)	64,186	4,316	0.7	6.7
15 (44,547-57,912[4])	34,767	2,274	0.3	6.5
16 (52,247-66,183[4])	1,848	77	([3])	4.2
17 (61,204-69,364[4])	643	29	([3])	4.5
18 (71,734[4])	96	7	([3])	7.3

[1] The grades or levels of the various pay systems have been considered equivalent to specific general grade solely on the basis of comparison of salary rates.
[2] Excludes employees of Central Intelligence Agency, National Security Agency, Board of Governors of Federal Reserve System, and foreign nationals overseas.
[3] Less than 0.05 percent.
[4] The rate of basic pay was limited by Federal regulations, 5 U.S. Code 5308, to $50,112.50.
Source: U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Work Force Analysis and Statistics Division.

In 1976 the proportion of women in the Armed Forces was about 5.3 percent (95,000) of all enlisted personnel. A decision to further increase the use of enlisted women in the Armed Forces was made as a result of a 1977 Defense Department study that found that continued expansion of their numbers can be an important factor in making the all-volunteer force continue to work without reducing its combat effectiveness. By June 1980 there were nearly 165,000 women in the Armed Forces, and they constituted 8.1 percent of active duty military personnel (table II-16). The proportion of women was highest in the Air Force (10.6 percent of the personnel), followed by the Army (8.5 percent); it was lower in the Navy (6.4 percent) and lowest in the Marines (3.5 percent).

By the end of March 1982, there were 191,340 women (9.1 percent) military personnel on active duty. Of that total, 39.8 percent were in the Army; 33.8 percent were in the Air Force; 22.1 percent, in the Navy; and 4.2 percent, in the Marines. Some 13 percent of the women (24,311) were officers in 1982.[14]

[14] Department of Defense Military Manpower Statistics, March 1982, Directorate for Information, Operations, and Reports, The Pentagon, Washington, D.C.

Minority women, like women generally, are underrepresented in the Armed Forces, relative to their civilian labor force participation or their share of the population. These women accounted for 2.3 percent of the 2 million Armed Forces personnel on active duty in 1980. Black women made up nearly 80 percent of the minority women in military service, with the remainder about evenly divided between Hispanic and other minority women.

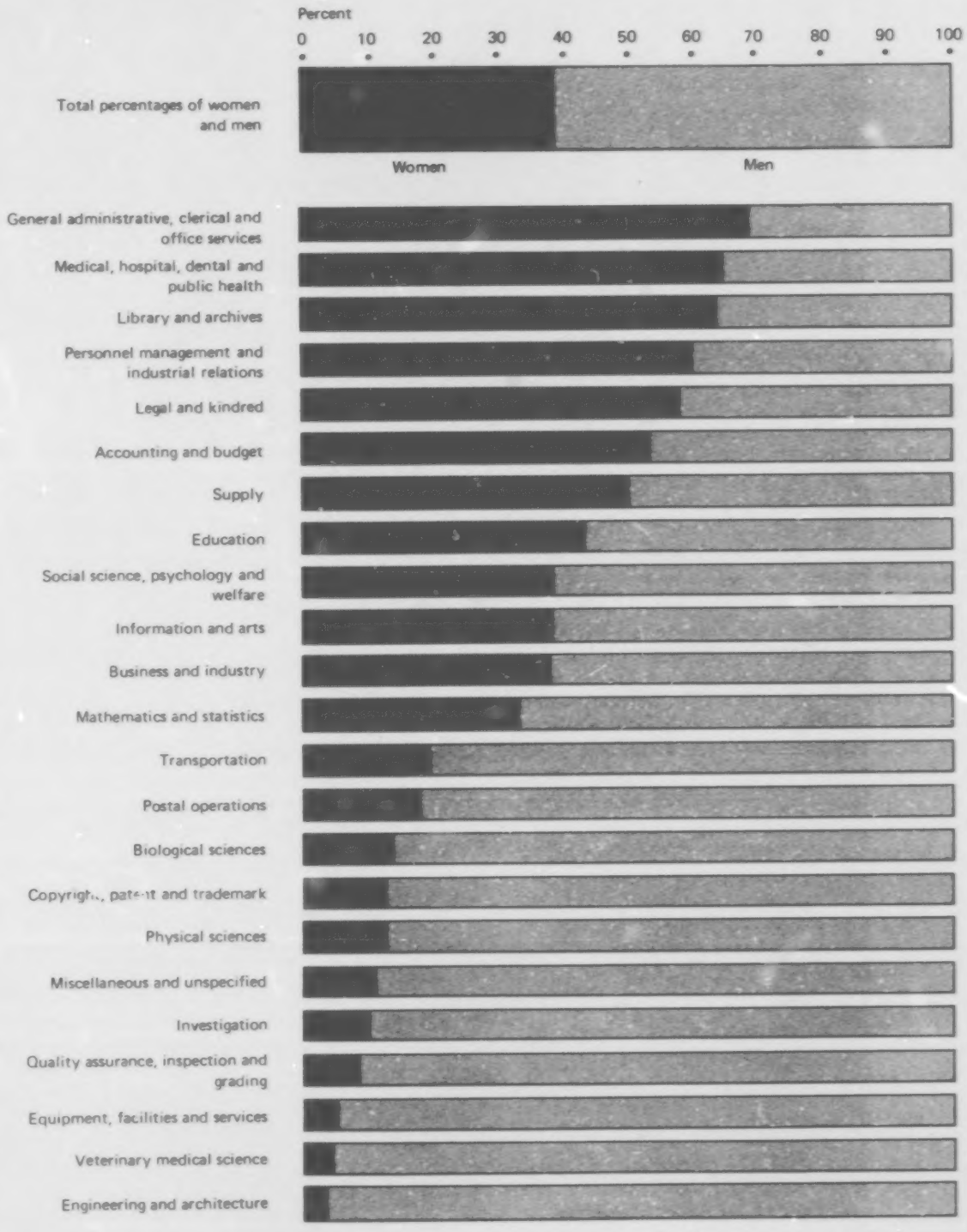
Among all women in military service, minority women accounted for nearly 3 out of 10 women on active duty.

Women were first admitted to the Nation's military service academies in 1976. In 1980, for the first time in history, women graduated from these academies. At the U.S. Military Academy (West Point) there were 62 women and 855 men graduates; at the U.S. Naval Academy, the graduates (including Marines) were 55 women and 894 men; and at the Air Force Academy, there were 98 women and 803 men graduates. The number of women entrants to undergraduate classes at the academies has been about the same as that for the 1980 classes; however, attrition rates are expected to be somewhat lower than the rates for the first classes with women students. The attrition rate for women in the first class

Chart II-4.

Women are overrepresented in general, administrative, clerical, and office jobs.

Distribution of full-time white-collar employment in the Federal Government by sex within occupational group, October 1980.



Source: U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Work Force Analysis and Statistics Division.

Table II-16

Women in the Armed Forces, 1980

	Total	Army	Air Force	Navy	Marines
Total persons in active Armed Forces	2,024,046	762,020	554,015	523,461	184,550
Total women	163,892	64,785	58,905	33,739	6,463
Officers	20,535	7,261	8,102	4,671	501
Enlisted	143,357	57,524	50,803	29,068	5,962
Percent of total Armed Forces	8.1	8.5	10.6	6.4	3.5
Number of minority women	47,722	26,389	13,708	5,842	1,783
Black	37,993	22,420	9,875	4,342	1,186
Hispanic	4,481	1,752	1,7[illegible]	665	317
Other	5,248	2,217	2,007	835	189
Minority women (as percent of total persons)	2.3	3.4	2.5	1.1	1.0
Black	1.9	2.9	1.8	0.8	0.7
Hispanic	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2
Other	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
Minority women (as percent of total women)	29.1	40.7	23.3	17.3	27.6
Black	23.2	34.6	16.8	12.9	21.0
Hispanic	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.0	4.5
Other	3.2	3.4	3.5	2.5	2.1

Source: U.S. Department of Defense.

Table II-17

Percent distribution of female enlisted personnel, by occupation category, end of fiscal years 1972, 1976 and 1980

Occupation category	1980	1976	1972
Total employment	100.0	100.0	100.0
Traditional	52.9	59.9	90.6
Medical and dental specialists	13.5	18.6	23.8
Administrative specialists and clerks	39.1	41.3	66.8
Nontraditional	47.1	40.2	9.4
Infantry, gun crew, and allied specialists	0.7	0.2	0.2
Electronics equipment repair	6.1	4.3	1.2
Communications and intelligence specialists	13.1	15.0	4.2
Other technical specialists	3.2	2.7	2.8
Electrical/mechanical equipment repair	9.8	6.7	—
Craft and kindred workers	2.2	1.4	0.1
Service and supply handlers	12.0	9.9	0.9

Source: U.S. Department of Defense.

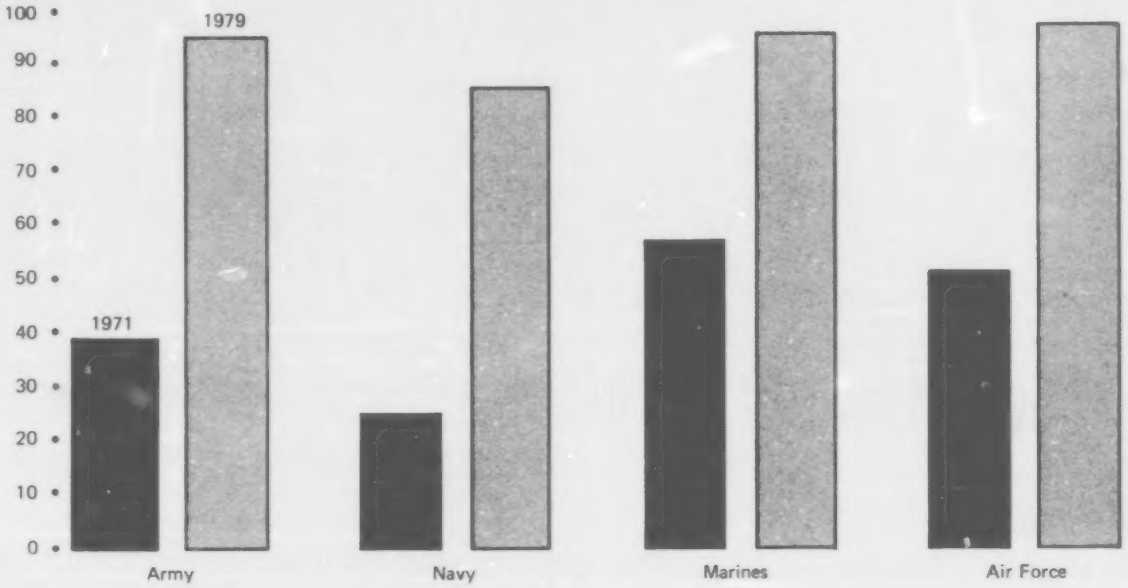
was 7 percent higher than the rate for men in those classes.

In addition to a greatly increased number of women in military service, progress also has been made in the assignment of women to nontraditional occupations (table II-17). Historically, women in the Armed Forces, like civilian women, were largely in what were considered women's jobs—nursing or clerical work. Although 5 out of 10 women are still assigned to these traditional occupation groups in military service, the percentage of women working in nontraditional and blue-collar assignments—such as electronics equipment repair, communication and intelligence specialist occupations, and craft and kindred occupations—increased from less than 10 percent of all enlisted women in 1972 to almost 50 percent in 1980.

Chart II-5.

The proportion of military occupations open to women has grown considerably.

Percent of occupations open to enlisted women in the Armed Forces of the United States, 1971 and 1979.



Source: U.S. Department of Defense.

Women can now be assigned to all but combat-associated specialties. In the Army, Air Force, and Marines, the proportion of occupations open to enlisted women ranges from 95 to 98 percent; in the Navy, 86 percent of the occupations are open to enlisted women (chart II-5). Whether this results in continued large increases in the nontraditional employment of women remains to be seen. The pay of enlisted personnel is determined by grade. If women can earn the same pay as typists that they can earn as mechanics, many might prefer the more traditional job. The pay incentive that exists in civilian life for women to seek nontraditional employment is missing in the military services. In any case, women in military services are all in nontraditional employment in an important sense—historically nearly all persons in these services were men.

Recruiting quotas are still relatively small for women and, as a result, recruiters can be more selective than they are for men. In general, women recruited between 1973 and 1976 tended to be older than men, as likely as men to be married, but less likely than men to be black. On measures such as educational attainment and aptitude test scores, women scored higher on the average than men (chart II-6).

Despite changes in the role of women in the Armed Forces, the military establishment remains a predominantly male organization. At present there are plans to moderately enlarge female accessions by the military to a little more than 12 percent of total personnel by 1985.

This utilization of women falls far short of the maximum potential, even under present restrictions and policies, such as the exclusion of women from combat-associated specialities and the reservation of certain positions in order to provide promotion opportunities for men and, in the case of the Navy, sea-shore rotation opportunities for them. It has been estimated that the number of enlisted military women might be doubled within 3 to 5 years and might reach 400,000—22 percent of the force—within 10 years even without resolution of the combat issue.[15]

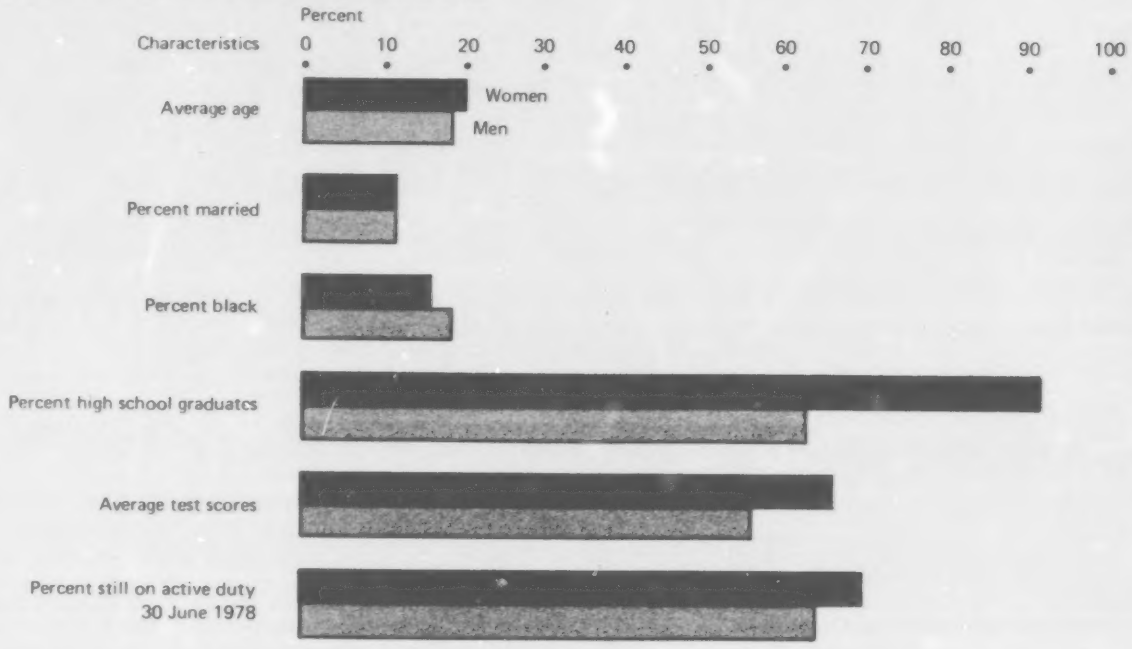
See also section on Coast Guard and military service in chapter VI.

[15] *Women and the Military, Studies in Defense Policy, op. cit.*

Chart II-6

Recruiters are generally more selective when enlisting women.

Characteristics of women and men recruits, 1973 to 1976.



Source: U.S. Department of Defense.

Chapter III
WOMEN'S INCOME AND EARNINGS

The gap between the earnings[1] of women and men has remained resistant to improvements made in the last two decades in the status of women in the labor force. In 1981 women who worked full time in year-round jobs[2] earned an average (median[3]) of $12,001, 59 percent of men's median earnings of $20,260. This ratio of women's earnings to those of men has been relatively stable since 1961 (table III-1). Although women's earnings are compared with men's earnings in a number of different ways in this analysis of the so-called earnings gap (for example, by occupation, by industry or overall), the ratio of women's earnings to men's remains about 60 percent.

For information on studies relating to the earnings gap, see section on Factors Affecting the Earnings Gap.

Weekly Earnings

Women who worked full time had median usual earnings of $224 a week in 1981, or about 65 percent of the $347 earned by men. By the second quarter of 1982, full-time women workers' median earnings had increased to $240, still 65 percent of men's median earnings of $370. Data from both earlier and different studies reflect the same relationship (table III-2).

Since usual weekly earnings include overtime, if earned, it should be noted that men tended to work longer hours than did women. About 29 percent of the full-time men but only 14 percent of the full-time women worked 41 hours or more a week in May 1980. When women worked overtime they were slightly more likely than men to have received premium pay, probably because large numbers of men were in salaried positions where overtime pay was not required by law. Proportionately, data for 1980 and 1979 indicate fewer workers represented by labor organizations[4] worked long hours. When they did, however, about twice as many received premium pay as did unorganized workers on long workweeks.

Male workers who were union members were about twice as likely as unionized women to have worked overtime and, while about half of organized women working more than 41 hours a week were paid overtime, nearly three-fourths of the men covered by union agreements were paid.

Weekly wage or salary earnings of workers belonging to unions were higher than those of unorganized workers. In May 1980 (the most recent data available), weekly

[1] Since 1948 data for comparing the earnings and income of women and men have been obtained from the March supplement to the Current Population Survey, conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The sample has been continually updated to reflect significant changes such as the admission of Alaska and Hawaii as States; new construction, and population shifts; and to provide greater reliability for smaller States and ethnic/racial groups. The number of occupied units eligible for interview has ranged from 21,500 to 65,000. The current sample contains approximately 60,000 occupied households eligible for survey. Beginning with reports containing income data for 1980, the independent population estimates used for 1979 and later years are based on the 1980 Decennial Census. For more details on this change, see "Introduction of 1980 Census Population Controls," in the Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 132, Appendix B, titled "Source and Reliability of the Estimates." Each issue of the Consumer Income Series P-60 reports contains details on the size and composition of the samples used.

[2] Full time is 35 hours a week or more; full year is 50 to 52 weeks a year.

[3] The median is an average which divides a distribution into two equal parts, one-half having earnings, income, or educational attainment above the median and the other having earnings, income or educational attainment below the median.

Note that in this chapter income refers to the total amounts of money received from the following sources: earnings—wages and salaries and net income from self-employment; and income other than earnings—Social Security, Supplemental Security Income, public assistance or welfare payments, interest, dividends, rents, royalties, estates or trusts, veterans' payments, unemployment and workers' compensation, private and government retirement and disability pensions, alimony, child support, and any other source of money income regularly received.

Money income does not include noncash benefits such as public transfer; food stamps; the National School Lunch Program, public and other subsidized housing; Medicare and Medicaid health insurance; CHAMPUS, VA and other medical health care; rent-free housing and goods produced and consumed on farms; and employer- or union-provided benefits such as full or partial payments toward pension plans, group health insurance or educational expenses.

Earnings are the sum of money wages or salary, and net money income from farm and nonfarm self-employment. Included in wages or salary are: wages, salary, Armed Forces pay, commissions, tips, piece-rate payments, and cash bonuses earned before deductions were made for taxes, bonds, pensions, union dues, etc. Self-employment income includes gross receipts (money) minus expenses.

Earnings data for the years 1967-81 include wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment. For 1955 to 1966, data include wage and salary income only.

[4] Data include workers who either are members of a labor union or of an employee or professional association which bargains collectively for its members, or whose jobs are covered by a union or association contract.

Table III-1

Comparison of median earnings of year-round full-time workers, by sex, 1955–81

(Persons 15 years of age and over)

Year	Median earnings		Earnings gap in dollars	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's	Earnings gap in constant 1967 dollars
	Women (1)	Men (2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1981	$12,001	$20,260	$8,259	59.2	68.8	$3,032
1980	11,197	18,612	7,415	60.2	66.2	3,004
1979	10,151	17,014	6,863	59.7	67.6	3,157
1978	9,350	15,730	6,380	59.4	68.2	3,267
1977	8,618	14,626	6,008	58.9	69.7	3,310
1976	8,099	13,455	5,356	60.2	66.1	3,141
1975	7,504	12,758	5,254	58.8	70.0	3,259
1974	6,772	11,835	5,063	57.2	74.8	3,433
1973	6,335	11,186	4,851	56.6	76.6	3,649
1972	5,903	10,202	4,299	57.9	72.8	3,435
1971	5,593	9,399	3,806	59.5	68.0	3,136
1970	5,323	8,966	3,643	59.4	68.4	3,133
1969	4,977	8,227	3,250	60.5	65.3	2,961
1968	4,457	7,664	3,207	58.2	72.0	3,079
1967	4,150	7,182	3,032	57.8	73.1	3,032
1966	3,973	6,848	2,875	58.0	72.4	2,958
1965	3,823	6,375	2,552	60.0	66.8	2,700
1964	3,690	6,195	2,505	59.6	67.9	2,696
1963	3,561	5,978	2,417	59.6	67.9	2,637
1962	3,446	5,974	2,528	59.5	73.4	2,790
1961	3,351	5,644	2,293	59.4	68.4	2,559
1960	3,293	5,417	2,124	60.8	64.5	2,394
1959	3,193	5,209	2,016	61.3	63.1	2,308
1958	3,102	4,927	1,825	63.0	58.8	2,108
1957	3,008	4,713	1,705	63.8	56.7	2,023
1956	2,827	4,466	1,639	63.3	58.0	2,014
1955	2,719	4,252	1,533	63.9	56.4	1,911

Note: For 1967–81 data include wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment; for 1955–66, data include wage and salary income only. For 1979–81, data are for persons 15 years of age and over; earlier data are for persons 14 years of age and over.

Column 3 = column 2 minus column 1.

Column 4 = column 1 divided by column 2.

Column 5 = column 2 minus column 1, divided by column 1.

Column 6 = column 3 divided by the purchasing power of the consumer dollar (1967 = $1.00).

Sources: "Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States" Current Population Reports, 1957 to 1980 and 1981 Advance Report, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

earnings averaged $320 for all employed workers covered by union agreements compared with $278 for nonunion workers.[5] In May 1977, the average for all workers represented by labor organizations was $262 compared with $221 for noncovered workers.[6] Unionized women workers earned $206, 73 percent of union men's earnings of $283. While organized men earned more than nonunion men, the differential was much greater for women.

[5] *Earnings and Other Characteristics of Organized Workers, May 1980*, Bulletin 2105, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[6] *Earnings and Other Characteristics of Organized Workers, May 1977*, Report 556, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Annual Earnings and Income

Earnings

Women who worked year round and full time in 1981, on the average earned only 59 cents for every dollar earned by men. In other words, women had to work nearly 9 days to obtain the same earnings the men obtained in 5 days.

In 1981 men's median earnings of $20,260 were 69 percent greater than the $12,001 earned by women. There has been no significant improvement in this relationship since the early 1960's.

Table III-2

Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers for selected periods[1]

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

	Total	Women	Men	Earnings Ratio
1982, Second quarter	$308	$240	$370	64.9
1981, Annual average	289	224	347	64.6
1981, Second quarter	284	221	343	62.7
1980, Second quarter	261	200	317	63.1
1979, January[2]	235	171	300	57.0
1973, May	159	116	188	61.7
1967, May	109	78	125	62.4

[1]The data, unless otherwise indicated, are based on usual weekly earnings reported to the monthly Current Population Survey, conducted by the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, for the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

[2]These data were developed by the Bureau of the Census for the *Income Survey Development Program*, a joint project of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and the Bureau of the Census. Average (mean) weekly earnings were computed from monthly wage or salary data and the median derived from the array.

Source: *Current Population Reports*, "Special Studies," p. 23, No. 118, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table III-3

Earnings distribution of year-round full-time workers, by sex, 1981

(Persons 15 years of age and over)

Earnings group	Number (in thousands)		Distribution		Likelihood of a woman rather than a man to be in each earnings group[1]	Women as percent of all earners	Cumulative distribution	
	Women (1)	Men (2)	Women (3)	Men (4)	(5)	(6)	Women (7)	Men (8)
Total	23,329	41,773	100.0	100.0	1.0	35.8		
Less than $3,000	537	1,031	2.3	2.5	0.9	34.2	2.3	2.5
$3,000 to $4,999	594	465	2.5	1.1	2.3	56.1	4.8	3.6
$5,000 to $6,999	1,601	1,137	6.9	2.7	2.6	58.5	11.7	6.3
$7,000 to $9,999	4,736	2,713	20.3	6.5	3.1	63.6	32.0	12.8
$10,000 to $14,999	8,186	7,438	35.1	17.8	2.0	52.4	67.1	30.6
$15,000 to $24,999	6,452	15,013	27.7	35.9	0.8	30.1	94.8	66.5
$25,000 to $49,999	1,170	12,005	5.0	28.7	0.2	8.9	99.8	95.2
$50,000 to $74,999	32	1,347	0.1	3.2	(')	2.3	99.9	98.4
$75,000 and over	21	625	0.1	1.5	0.1	3.3	100.0	100.0

Note: Individual items may not add to totals because of rounding.

Column 5 = column 3 divided by column 4.

Column 6 = column 1 divided by the sums of columns 1 and 2 times 100.

[1] This measure would show earnings equality if the coefficient for each income group were equal to 1.0. This is a more accurate method of assessing the earnings disparity than simply comparing medians.

[2] Less than 0.1.

Source: Table Ll2, March Supplement 1982 (unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Women are overrepresented among workers whose earnings are low, and are underrepresented among those with the highest earnings (table III-3). In 1981 women who worked full time the year round were 2.3 times as likely as men to earn between $3,000 and $5,000. However, men were nearly 6 times as likely as women to have earned $25,000 to $50,000.

More than 80 percent of the women workers earned less than the median earnings of men, but only 20 percent of the men earned less than women's median earnings. Over the past 25 years, about 9 out of 10 women workers with full-time year-round employment earned less than half of the median earnings of men comparably employed. In 1971, 1978, 1979, and 1981, however, the

Table III-4

Median income of women and men 25 to 64 years old and 65 years and over, by type of income received in 1981[1]

Type of income	25 to 64 years		65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	$ 5,827	$18,220	$ 4,706	$ 8,138
Wage or salary	10,029	20,111	8,911	13,726
Nonfarm self-employment	5,310	16,786	7,197	15,154
Farm self-employment	3,519	12,204	10,272	8,216
Property (interest, dividends, rent, trusts)	7,520	21,932	5,880	9,998
Social Security and Railroad Retirement	4,673	7,817	4,798	7,902
Supplemental Security	3,554	3,600	3,507	3,606
Public assistance or welfare	4,160	3,969	3,730	(2)
Veterans, unemployment and workers' compensation	7,705	14,393	4,846	7,618
Unemployment compensation only	7,644	13,921	(2)	(2)
Retirement, total	9,689	17,487	8,934	11,307
Private pensions or annuities	9,151	12,857	8,279	10,683
Military retirement pensions only	(2)	26,383	(2)	14,692
Federal employee pensions only	10,828	17,556	9,675	14,879
State or local employee pensions only	10,320	18,078	9,944	10,791
Other combinations	(2)	21,434	(2)	19,542
Other	10,301	15,400	6,126	10,092
Combinations of income types				
Earnings	9,760	19,680	8,734	13,186
Earnings and property	11,053	22,607	9,880	14,897
Government transfer payments	5,249	12,361	4,743	7,954
Government transfer payments only	3,333	4,222	3,409	4,275
Government transfer payments and other income	6,917	14,653	5,872	9,385
Public assistance or supplemental security or both	3,821	3,693	3,502	3,593
Social Security or retirement income or both	5,213	11,788	4,824	8,042
Social Security or supplemental security or both	4,348	7,201	4,736	7,839

[1] Includes persons who worked less than year round full time.
[2] Base less than 75,000.
Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

disparity was slightly less, when 8 out of 10 women earned less than half of men's median earnings. The decrease in the disparity during these years may have been due to recession.

Wage and Salary Earnings—Tables III-4 and III-5, following, which provide information on median income by types and sources of income, indicate that wage or salary income is very important for both women and men. Approximately 96 percent of year-round full-time women workers were wage and salary workers; less than 4 percent were self-employed. Men wage and salary workers constituted just under 90 percent of those with earnings, and slightly more than 10 percent were self-employed. There was, of course, some overlap for a relatively small number of workers. Data on the median wage and salary income of year-round full-time workers, as compared with their median earnings, indicate that self-employed income included in the median earnings tend to distort, although minimally, the true annual income on which most families and persons tend to rely.

Based on earnings solely from wages or salaries, by occupation, year-round full-time women workers averaged (median) $12,103 in 1981 compared with $20,454 for men similarly employed.[7] When classified by industry, median wage or salary income was $12,172 for women and $20,682 for men.[8] The ratio of women's earnings to men's in either instance, was 59 percent—59.2 percent for the median by occupation and 58.9 percent when comparing the industry medians.

Income From Other Sources

The major forms of income, other than earnings (wages or salaries and farm and nonfarm self-employed

[7] Table P.11, March Supplement 1982 (unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.
[8] Table P.10, March Supplement 1982 (unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

income) are property (interest, dividends, rent and estates and trusts); Social Security and Railroad Retirement benefits; other retirement (private pensions or annuities, military retirement, and Federal/State/Local employee pensions); veterans' payments and unemployment and workers' compensation; Supplemental Security Income (SSI); public assistance or welfare; and "other"—a catch-all which includes alimony, child support, other regular contributions, and "anything else."

As table III–4 indicates, the median incomes for all women and men 25 to 64 years of age and 65 years and over differ considerably. All women 25 to 64 years of age have a median income which is only 32 percent that of all men in that age group. For persons who have attained "retirement" age or are older, lessened income on the average results in a 58 percent ratio between such women and men. The more startling differential occurs in the comparison of the median incomes of persons 25 to 64 years of age and 65 years old and older in the same sex. Because the median income for all women in the younger group was so low, median income for those women aged 65 and over was 81 percent of the younger age group. For all men, however, the ratio was 45 percent.

Labor force participation, however, appears to be a factor in the magnitude of income by type of income. For women 25 to 64 years of age, median wage or salary income has the highest dollar value. For men in the younger group, the highest median for a major type of income was from property, followed by wage and salary income. For this group, the single highest dollar median was for military pensions, a sub-group of retirement income. For the "retirement" group, median income from farm self-employment was highest for women—probably because this relatively small group had been left working family farms after the demise of their husbands. For men in the older group, however, nonfarm self-employment had the highest median, possibly influenced by the practices of doctors, lawyers, dentists, accountants, and other unincorporated businesses. It is interesting to note, however, that the next major type of income for all men aged 65 and over was that from wages or salaries.

The effect of work for pay, whether in the form of wages or salaries or self-employment earnings, is apparent when the median value of the combination of earnings and property is analyzed for both age/sex groups. In fact, although median income from property had the highest median dollar value only for men between 25 and 64 years of age, in combination with earnings, it provided the highest median combined income for both sexes and age groups.

The various medians shown in table III–4 obscure the relative importance of the different types of income for women and men. A small or relatively small number of recipients with large pensions, for example, could have a high median, but that median could be overwhelmed by the number of persons with, for example, income from savings and other investments. For women in the younger group, nearly as many had income from property (66 percent) as from wages or salaries (68 percent). For women in this younger group, however, the median value of the property income was 75 percent that of the wage or salary income. For men in this age group, higher labor force participation (a total of 92 percent with income from earnings) meant a slightly smaller proportion with income from property (63 percent), but the median income from property was higher than the wage or salary median. Women in this age group had median wage and salary income equivalent to half that of the men and median income from property which was 36 percent that of the men's. For those in the groups 65 years of age and over, labor force participation declined precipitously. About 10 percent of the women and nearly 25 percent of the men had income from earnings. For the women in this age group, median income from property was 66 percent that of their median income from wages or salaries; for the men, the ratio was 72 percent. The ratio between the median wage or salary income (only) was 65 percent; the ratio between women and men for median income from property for this age group was 59 percent.

These data, for all persons 25 years of age and over by total money income, indicate that there were approximately 3.1 million more women than men with income from property—but on average, the median value of the women's income from property was only 36 percent that of the median return for men.

The source of income for year-round full-time workers is detailed in table III–5. For both women and men working full time year round, only 30 percent had income solely from earnings—most of which was from wages or salaries rather than self-employment income. Of the women workers, 54 percent had income from earnings and property and 16 percent from earnings and other sources. Fifty-nine percent of the men working full time full year had income from earnings and property and only 2 percent from earnings and other sources. The ratio between women's and men's income based on these data was 60 percent. The ratio between their median incomes from earnings alone was 70 percent: wages and salaries, 69 percent, and self-employment income, 52 percent. The ratio between the median for women's and men's earnings and other income was 60 percent.

It is not possible, from the data in this table, to estimate the median value of year-round full-time workers' earnings compared with their total income. Either earnings must be sufficiently high to permit investment in any of the forms of property in order to have income from property or one must inherit the property.

The top wealthholders are defined by the Internal Revenue Service as persons with personal assets, such as real estate, bonds, corporate stock, cash (including checking and savings accounts, savings certificates, and

Table III-5

Median income of year-round full-time workers, by source of income in 1981[1]

(Persons 15 years of age and over)

Source of income	Women	Men
Total	$12,457	$20,892
Earnings only	10,814	15,254
Wage or salary only	10,884	15,519
Self-employment income only	5,818	10,909
Nonfarm only	6,154	11,816
Farm only	(*)	3,883
Nonfarm and farm	(*)	(*)
Wage or salary and self-employment income only	10,723	16,489
Wage or salary and nonfarm self-employment income only	10,737	18,350
Wage or salary and farm self-employment income only	10,646	12,841
Wage or salary, nonfarm and farm income only	(*)	(*)
Earnings and income other than earnings	13,827	23,032
Wage or salary and other income only	13,918	23,316
Wage or salary and property income only	13,792	23,561
Wage or salary and other income	14,285	22,080
Nonfarm self-employment income and other income only	9,332	21,412
Nonfarm self-employment income and property income only	9,858	22,106
Nonfarm self-employment income and other income	8,811	16,936
Farm self-employment income and other income only	1,893	7,381
Farm self-employment income and property income only	1,822	7,581
Farm self-employment income and other income	3,264	7,061
Wage or salary, self-employment, and other income	16,485	23,397
Wage or salary, nonfarm self-employment and other income only	16,599	24,839
Wage or salary, nonfarm self-employment and property income only	15,399	24,747
Wage or salary, nonfarm self-employment and other income	19,847	24,203
Wage or salary, farm self-employment, and other income only	14,434	20,903
Wage or salary, farm self-employment, and property income only	13,661	21,898
Wage or salary, farm self-employment, and other income	(*)	15,717
Other combinations	(*)	17,683
Other income only	1,562	(*)
Social Security income only	(*)	(*)
Public assistance income only	(*)	(*)
Pension income only	(*)	(*)
Pension and property income only	(*)	(*)
Social Security and public assistance income only	(*)	(*)
Social Security and property income only	(*)	(*)
Social Security and pension income only	(*)	(*)
Social Security, pensions, and property income only	(*)	(*)
All other combinations	1,438	(*)

[1] Base less than 75,000.

Source: Table P7, March Supplement 1982 (unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Treasury bills and notes), notes and mortgages, and insurance equity, totaling $60,000 or more. In 1972, the latest date for which data are available, some 12.8 million people met this criterion. Women were 39 percent of this group.

Despite the fact that many people believe that women own or control most of the wealth in the country, the data show that 60 percent of the top wealthholders were men. In fact, it was not until women were grouped at 70 years of age and over that they exceeded the number and percentage of wealthy men—possibly because they had outlived the men in their families. Further, it was only when assets exceeded half a million dollars that the number and percentage of women exceeded that of men (table III-7). It should be noted that there were 155 women in this country with assets between $500,000 and $999,999—50.8 percent of the total; and 90 women with assets in excess of $1.0 million—50.3 percent of the total. Proportionately, the largest single wealthy group consisted of single women (which included divorced persons). Widows were the next largest group. The data do not substantiate a belief that women own or control the wealth in the country; in fact, the evidence is to the contrary.

Table III-6

Persons with personal assets of $60,000 or more in 1972, by sex and age

Sex and age	Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution
Total	12,815	100.0
Women	5,006	39.1
Under 50 years	1,951	15.2
50 to 69 years	2,001	15.6
70 years and over	875	6.8
Men	7,810	60.9
Under 50 years	3,976	31.0
50 to 69 years	2,810	21.9
70 years and over	762	5.9

Source: *Statistics of Income, 1972 Supplemental Report, Personal Wealth, Estimated From Estate Tax Returns*, U.S. Department of the Treasury, Internal Revenue Service.

Factors Affecting the Earnings Gap

Available data from all reputable sources show a persistent and relatively consistent disparity in the earnings of women and men, whether measured in terms of weekly or annual wage or salary income or earnings income. This difference reflects, in part, age, education and training, job tenure, seniority, and the amount, type, and location of the work performed. Other acknowledged factors are: a higher proportion of women work in part-time jobs, men's workweek tends to be longer even within the full-time context, a lower proportion of women are members of labor organizations, and there are differences in the distribution of workers within occupational groups and industries, with women concentrated in certain low-paying major occupational groups. The discontinuity in work experience once cited as a reasonable explanation has changed considerably in recent years, but its effect on the earnings gap has not been definitively evaluated. That it leads to lesser seniority accumulation, advancement of skills and general work experience cannot be discounted. Explanatory models, taking combinations of the above factors into account, all leave a large proportion of the gap between women's and men's earnings unexplained. This unexplained difference can be attributed to sex discrimination.

Increasingly, allegations are being made that work traditionally performed by women is undervalued and underpaid in comparison with other work—predominantly performed by men—different in content, but perceived to require the same or less educational preparation, experience, skill, and responsibility. Several priority issues and research areas which could lead to lessening of the earnings gap and promoting pay equity have been identified and recently investigated. Among the most noteworthy results have been the publication of

Table III-7

Number and distribution of top wealthholders, by sex, marital status, and size of net worth, 1972

Net worth class	Women			Men		
	Married	Single[1]	Widowed	Married	Single[1]	Widowed
Total persons With assets over $60,000 (numbers in thousands)	2,269	946	1,791	6,303	986	521
$60,000 to $99,999	1,338	517	949	4,254	688	301
$100,000 to $249,999	682	307	584	1,496	209	159
$250,000 to $499,999	150	68	166	361	62	41
$500,000 to $999,999	65	34	56	121	17	12
$1,000,000 or more	34	20	36	71	11	7
Total persons With assets over $60,000 (percent)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
$60,000 to $99,999	59.0	54.7	53.0	67.5	69.8	57.8
$100,000 to $249,999	30.1	32.5	32.6	23.7	21.2	30.5
$250,000 to $499,999	6.6	7.2	9.3	5.7	6.3	7.9
$500,000 to $999,999	2.9	3.6	3.1	1.9	1.7	2.3
$1,000,000 or more	1.5	2.1	2.0	1.1	1.1	1.3

[1] Includes divorced persons.
Source: *Statistics of Income, 1972 Supplemental Report, Personal Wealth, Estimated From Estate Tax Returns*, U.S. Department of the Treasury, Internal Revenue Service.

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Job Title Revisions To Eliminate Sex- and Age-Referent Language from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Third Edition and the revised *Fourth Edition of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles.*[9] A study was also undertaken by the National Academy of Sciences for the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to determine if remuneration for work which is not the same but is of equal or comparable value varies between workers because of the sex of the worker. An interim report, *Job Evaluation: An Analytic Review,*[10] provided an assessment of current job evaluation procedures and practices, particularly in regard to their use in resolving complaints based on sex-based wage discrimination; and an analytic critique of factors and factor weights, subjectivity of job evaluation, and the application of multiple job evaluation plans applied to single firms. The final report, *Women, Work and Wages: Equal Pay for Jobs of Equal Value,* found substantial discrimination in pay which is neither easily identified nor easily remedied. The study addressed elimination of discrimination within the context of a single firm rather than a systemic solution to "unintentional" discrimination.[11]

Some data on other factors that play a part in creating the earnings gap are now available in findings of the Panel Study of Income Dynamics by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research. The panel's first analysis of its data reported on more than 5,000 households. Persons in the study were 18 to 64 years of age and were in the labor force in 1975. They included married and unmarried men, wives, and unmarried women who maintained families.

The panel gathered data by race and sex of four factors that might cause a gap between the earnings of white men and three other groups: white women, black women, and black men. Table III-8 shows the effect of formal education, labor force attachment, work history, and years in current job for each of the four groups.

The factor of formal education had relatively little impact on white women (white men and white women averaged about the same number of years of formal education), although it had moderate impact on black women and a substantial impact on black men.

The indicators of labor force attachment used by the panel were absenteeism because of the person's own illness or the illness of others; self-imposed restrictions on hours of work, location of work, or moving in order to get a better job; and plans to quit a job. In these terms, women on the average had a lower attachment to the labor force than did men. For example, they were more often absent from work because of the illness of others in the family. Even so, these variations explained virtually none of the inequities in earnings. Women with a lower labor force attachment earned about the same as women with similar qualifications who scored higher i. .heir labor force attachment.

Table III-8

Share of wage gap between white men and other groups "explained" by tested factors, 1975

(Percent distribution)

	White women	Black women	Black men
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Formal education	2.0	11.0	39.0
Indicators of labors force attachment	2.0	– 2.0	– 2.0
Work history	28.0	14.0	3.0
Years of training on current job	10.0	8.0	15.0
Unexplained	58.0	69.0	45.0

Source: *Five Thousand Families, Patterns of Economic Progress.* Panel Study of Income Dynamics, 1978, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The major single factor that accounted for the wage gap between white men and white and black women was work history. This factor and the closely related one of years of training completed in the present job were responsible for 38 percent of the wage differential between white men and white women and for 22 percent of the differential between white men and black women.

The work history data obtained by the panel covered the number of years each worker spent in these categories: out of the labor force; since the completion of school; employment before working for present employer; work for present employer before current job; in current job; training completed on current job; and the duration of the posttraining period. The panel also learned the proportion of each person's working years that was spent in full-time jobs.

The panel identified five basic work patterns of the women and men aged 18 to 64 years (chart III-1). In work Pattern A, the workers had been employed continuously since leaving school. In Pattern B, workers had experienced a period of nonemployment between leaving school and the first job, and then had worked continuously. For example, some of the women may have married after completing school, then raised a family, and started to work at age 30. In Pattern C, workers had begun work immediately after leaving school, dropped out for a while, and then returned to work. Workers in Pattern D delayed their start of work and later had interruptions in their work careers. For example, some of the women may have married and raised a child, had a

[9] U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Employment Service, 1975 and 1977.

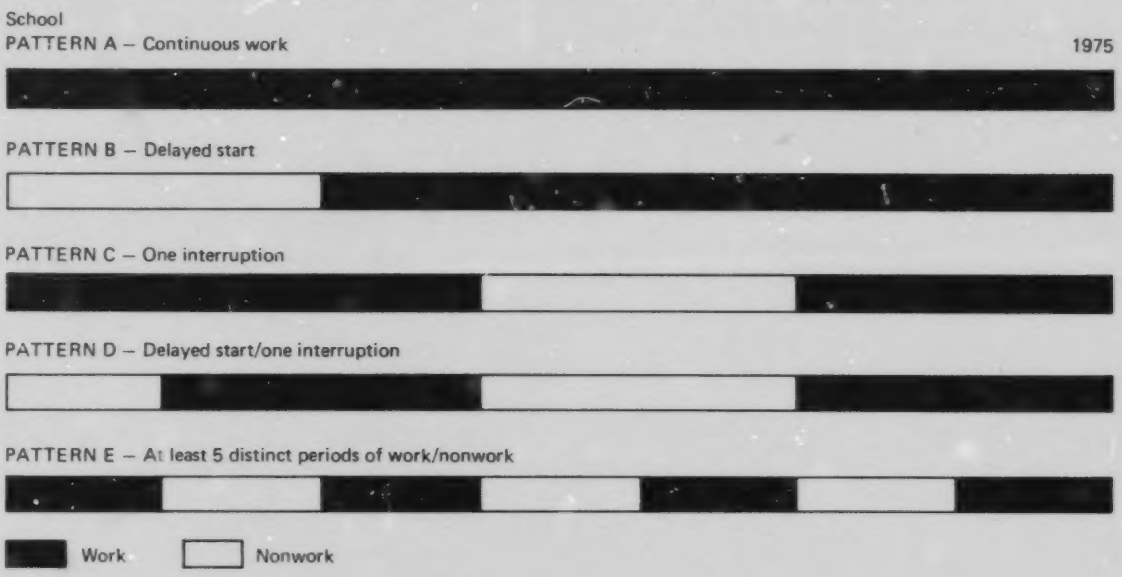
[10] National Academy of Sciences, Committee on Occupational Classification and Analysis, 1979.

[11] National Academy of Sciencel, Committee on Occupational Classification and Analysis, 1981.

Chart III-1.

The work history of women and men is an important factor in the earnings gap.

Basic work history patterns of workers 18 to 64 years of age, surveyed by Panel Study of Income Dynamics.



Source: **Five Thousand Families: Patterns of Economic Progress,** Panel Study of Income Dynamics, 1978, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

job for a few years, and then dropped out of the labor force to raise another child. In Pattern E, workers had experienced at least five distinct periods of employment and nonemployment.

Table III-9 shows the percentage distribution of women and men, by race, in each of the five work history categories. More than half of all employed men had worked continuously since leaving school. Women's work history patterns, particularly those of white women, showed greater variation from this pattern. Less than 36 percent of white women and nearly 43 percent of black women had been employed continuously since leaving school.

Black women were much more likely (84 percent) than white women (65 percent) to have been employed continuously, or to have delayed their entry into the labor market and then worked continuously. Moreover, black women experienced fewer interruptions in their employment, and their periods of nonemployment tended to be shorter than those of white women.

The panel also examined the work patterns for workers aged 30 to 44 years, and found that women in this age group had more intermittent employment patterns than did those in all other ages covered in the study. However, about one-fourth of the white women in this age group and more than a third of the black women had worked continuously since leaving school.

Overall, the work history patterns differed considerably among the white and black women 30 to 44 years, as did the patterns of all white and black women. About 28 percent of the white women and about 42 percent of the black women were in Pattern B, with a delayed start in employment. About 17 percent of the white women and only about 5 percent of the black women in this age group were in Pattern E, where workers had experienced at least five periods of nonemployment.

Table III-9

Percent distribution of employed persons age 18 to 64 years, by work pattern, sex, and race, 1975

Work history patterns	Women		Men	
	White	Black	White	Black
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Pattern A	35.6	42.4	54.6	61.4
Pattern B	28.9	41.8	11.1	15.1
Pattern C	15.3	5.4	28.5	21.8
Pattern D	8.4	7.0	3.2	1.0
Pattern E	11.8	3.7	2.8	0.7

Source: *Five Thousand Families: Patterns of Economic Progress,* Panel Study of Income Dynamics, 1978, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

In theory, the fact that women tend to have less continuous employment than do men might be responsible for much of the gap between women's and men's earnings. Women might fall behind in seniority and in the acquisition of skills during periods of unemployment or find that their skills are outmoded when they return to work. The researchers found, however, that staying out of the labor force had surprisingly few significant direct effects on women's wages. White women with frequent interruptions in employment (two or more) had nearly the same hourly earnings as did those who had a similar amount of work experience and fewer interruptions in employment. Black women whose employment had been frequently interrupted earned about 19 percent less than other black women, but the wages of black women with less than two interruptions in employment were unaffected by the time the women were out of the labor force.

Two elements in work histories accounted for the largest proportion of the gap in earnings between women and men. These were the length of employment with the present employer and the years of training that had been completed on the present job.

The fact that white men had completed more than twice as much training in their present jobs as any other group in the panel study alone accounted for 10 percent of the wage gap between white women and white men, 8 percent of the gap between black women and white men, and 15 percent of the gap between black and white men. Exclusive of training, the white men also had more years of employment with the present employer than did the women. This explained another 12 percent of the gap in earnings between white women and white men and 7 percent of the gap between black women and white men.

It was concluded that women and black men with work histories similar to those of white men were working in jobs with much lower training requirements. Their work experience did not pay off in training opportunities as it did for white men.

The Value of Training and Work Experience

Economists differ in some respects on whether such factors as training and work experience are of equal value to all workers. The more traditional view is that on-the-job training is an investment in human capital that will pay off at some time in the future. The costs and benefits of training presumably vary, depending on such things as the value of the worker's time that is lost to production while she or he is in training and the length of the payoff period in which greater earnings will be received by the more highly skilled worker.

More recently, some economists have argued that earnings are largely determined by the labor market in which people work rather than by the amount of education and training they have had. There is a dual labor market for workers, these economists contend, with jobs in the primary market sector characterized by structured job ladders and promotional possibilities. These are jobs with a future. In the secondary market sector there are largely "dead end jobs" that require only low skill levels and offer few or no prospects for promotion. Discrimination is found to be an integral part of the dual labor market's functioning, and it tends to confine women and blacks to jobs in the secondary labor market.

In considering the value of training and work experience for white and black women, it may be useful to take these theories into account. In the Michigan panel study, for example, younger workers were much more likely than were older workers to be receiving training on their current jobs and also to be learning for a future job. As the human capital theorists would point out, the expected lifetime period of work for these workers is longer than that for older workers and provides a longer payoff period. However, the effects of discrimination were clear in the panel study and tend to support proponents of the dual labor market approach. In addition, the fact that on-the-job training was found to increase with formal education, hours worked per week, and hourly earnings suggests the presence of a secondary labor market. Training was especially low for part-time workers, persons earning less than $3 an hour, and those with less than 9 years of education.

Edward Lazear of the University of Chicago has demonstrated that there was a substantial narrowing of the wage differential between young men and young women in the 6-year period between 1968 and 1974.[12] This narrowing did not appear to reflect differences in the preemployment characteristics of the two groups. This researcher believes that the increase in the relative earnings of young women was, to a large extent, the result of rapid wage gains, which reflected an investment in on-the-job training. Lazear expects that the future age/earnings profiles of women will be more comparable with those of men than was the case in the past.

Nicholas Kiefer[13] has done research which suggests that training leads to higher employment and earnings for black women. The strongest gains seemed to be made by women who were trained or placed in service occupations. This finding also indicates that the gains were greatest for women whose wages were low and points to the long-standing problem of occupational stratification in the labor force according to the sex and race of workers.

Although the findings of these researchers were based on sophisticated methodologies, the data that were processed are still limited and sparse. However, the results of studies of this kind are attracting attention in the research community, and further studies are likely to be

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[12] Women in the Labor Market, Cynthia B. Lloyd, Emily S. Andrews, and Curtis L. Gilroy (Eds), p. 331, 1979, Columbia University Press, New York, N.Y.
[13] *Ibid.*, p. 289.

made because many questions about the economic value of training and work experience are unresolved. At the same time, social changes are underway that appear to be having some effect on women's expectations, employment, potential lifetime earnings, and the extent of their participation in family functions such as child care, household duties, and the like. Changes also are occurring as a result of responses by employers to the enforcement of antidiscrimination legislation, equal pay laws, and the changing roles of women in the economy. The older patterns that placed certain values, or limitations, on training may be displaced as these social changes assert themselves in the labor market.

The Impact of Equal Employment Opportunity Laws and Regulations

The persistence of differentials between the earnings of women and men continues to be a major concern. On the surface, it would appear that legislation which was enacted more than a decade ago has been ineffective in reducing discrimination in employment against women. However, at least one researcher, Andrea Beller of the University of Illinois at Urbana, believes that an underlying factor may be the rising labor force participation rates of women.[14] Women entering the labor force—about two out of three new entrants or reentrants are women—are usually unable to command the higher wages typically paid to more experienced workers. Beller argues that, on the basis of these rising participation rates, it might be expected that the male-female earnings gap would have widened by about 7 percent between 1967 and 1974. Instead, the earnings differential was relatively constant during this period. One reason for this, Beller says, was the enforcement of title VII, the equal employment opportunity (EEO) title of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which kept the differential from widening as increasing numbers of women entered the labor force.

Enforcement of sex discrimination provisions under title VII was found to have had an even greater impact when only the private employment sector was examined. In this sector, EEO enforcement increased the demand for women relative to men and reduced the earnings differential 14 percent between 1967 and 1974.

In 1972 amendments to title VII brought more employers under the jurisdiction of the law and granted the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission the right to sue a private employer. Beller notes that the postamendment enforcement of the law's provisions against sex discrimination had a more positive effect in the short run on the earnings of women and caused an even greater reduction in the female-male earnings differential than did preamendment enforcement of title VII. The right to sue a private respondent was particularly successful in increasing the law's effectiveness. Overall, the 1974 earnings of men increased significantly less than did the earnings of women as a result of title VII enforcement.

The Federal Government uses its procurement power to further equal employment opportunity. Executive Order 11246, as amended, was issued by the President in 1965. It prohibits discrimination in employment and requires most Federal contractors to take affirmative action to overcome special barriers to employment for women and minorities. Failure to carry out the mandate of E.O. 11246 has resulted in contract cancellation and debarment from consideration for future Federal contracts.

Other laws require affirmative action for handicapped workers and veterans. If women workers themselves are not direct beneficiaries of these laws, they sometimes are the mothers, wives, and other relatives of such beneficiaries.

While the laws and regulations are enforced, system change is slow and more time will have to pass before the data reflect the changes.

Occupation as a Factor in Women's Earnings

Despite recent demographic and other changes in the labor force and in women's attachment to the labor force, there remain in place many historical patterns that have the effect of concentrating women in lower paying jobs that offer limited opportunities for advancement. Although there is ample documentation that this situation exists, there have been few attempts to explore the causes through economic analysis.

Solomon Polachek of the University of North Carolina has theorized that women's occupational choices, and their social stratification in the economy, are in part determined by intermittent attachment to the labor force.[15] He calculated that if women were to have a "full" commitment to the labor force, the number of women professionals would increase by 35 percent, and the number of women in management would more than double. Correspondingly, the number of women in unskilled occupations would decrease by more than 60 percent, and the number of women in clerical occupations also would decline.

Polachek believes that if such changes occur they are likely to take place over a period of time. First, the educational choices of women might change, followed by changes in the entry-level jobs held by women. These changes would then continue to affect the life cycle attachments of women to the labor force. Older women

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 304.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 137.

would probably continue in present work patterns, with many of them restricted to stereotypical jobs.

The concentration of women in relatively low-paying occupations, and in lower status jobs within higher status occupations, is of prime importance in explaining the differential between women's and men's earnings. For example, women outnumber men among adult white-collar workers. However, among professionals in 1981, men earned 54 percent more than did women. Doctors, lawyers, judges, engineers, college educators, architects, and other highly paid professionals were likely to be men. Elementary and secondary school teachers, nurses, librarians, dietitians, health technologists, social workers, and other less well paid professionals were likely to be women.

Full-Time and Part-Time Work

Women are much more likely than men to be working part time (less than 35 hours a week). Among all women workers 23 percent were usually on part-time work schedules in 1981 compared with 8 percent of all male workers (table III-10). This disparity was even greater among workers in the 25-to-54-year age group, with 19 percent of the women and only 2 percent of the men working part time.

There has been little change since 1979, when 24 percent of all employed women worked part time, compared with 8 percent of working men. At that time, 19 percent of the women 25 to 54 years of age compared with 2 percent of the men in that age group worked part time.

On the basis of hourly earnings, it would appear that women who work part time have achieved pay equality with men who work part time, and that they do not suffer from the disparity in earnings that exists between women and men full-time workers. The median earnings for women on part-time work schedules in 1979 was $3.21 an hour compared with a $3.20 median for men (table III-11). However, these hourly earnings are not for comparable groups of workers. Most men who worked part time were either teenagers, 16 to 19 years old, or were 55 years and over, when large numbers of men might have worked part time because they were semiretired for health or other reasons. Most women who worked part time were in the prime working years of 25 to 54. Many chose part-time employment because of their responsibilities in the home. Moreover, women made up 89 percent of the part-time workers in the 25-to-54-year age group: 5,190,000 women compared with 727,000 men.

In general, persons who usually worked full time had the best paying jobs in 1979. The difference in median hourly earnings between men who worked full time and those who worked part time was large—$6.25 and $3.20 an hour, respectively. For white men, the earnings differential between full-time and part-time workers was especially large, with hourly earnings of $6.39 for full-time workers and $3.21 for part-time workers. The smallest gap existed for Hispanic men, whose median hourly wage for full-time work was the lowest among all male workers in this work category.

Table III-10

Part-time and full-time status of the civilian labor force in 1981, by sex, race, and age

	Full-time labor force (in thousands)	Part-time labor force (in thousands)	Part-time labor force as a percent of total labor force
All women	35,929	10,767	23.1
16 to 19 years	2,054	2,157	51.2
20 to 24 years	6,115	1,336	17.9
25 to 54 years	23,530	5,529	19.0
55 years and over	4,231	1,744	29.2
All men	56,992	4,982	8.0
16 to 19 years	2,681	2,096	43.9
20 to 24 years	7,794	854	9.9
25 to 54 years	38,695	819	2.1
55 years and over	7,823	1,213	13.4
White women	30,354	9,803	24.4
16 to 19 years	1,788	1,950	52.2
20 to 24 years	5,202	1,203	18.8
25 to 54 years	19,627	5,102	20.6
55 years and over	3,737	1,547	29.3
White men	50,456	4,439	8.1
16 to 19 years	2,341	1,882	44.6
20 to 24 years	6,767	753	10.0
25 to 54 years	34,218	698	2.0
55 years and over	7,130	1,104	13.4

Source: *Employment and Earnings*, March 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Women's hourly earnings showed little variation for full-time and part-time employment, with the median wage at $3.98 and $3.21, respectively. Among women in various ethnic groups, the only significant deviation in the hourly earnings of part-time and full-time workers was for black women, who had hourly earnings of $3.88 for full-time work and only $2.96 for part-time work. It is apparent that, whether they worked full or part time, the median hourly earnings of all women hovered close to the minimum wage, while the median for men, and particularly for white men, rose considerably above that level.

The earnings gap was largest among full-time sales workers, where most high paying nonretail jobs are held by men (see tabulation below). Women sales workers earned just over half of their male counterparts' earnings. The earnings differential was also larger among

Table III-11

Median hourly earnings of full- and part-time wage and salary workers, by sex and race, 1979

	All workers		Usually full time		Usually part time	
	Number (in thousands)	Median	Number (in thousands)	Median	Number (in thousands)	Median
Total						
Female	22,866	$3.66	14,780	$3.98	8,085	$3.21
Male	27,771	5.73	24,195	6.25	3,577	3.20
White						
Female	19,680	$3.66	12,359	$3.99	7,321	$3.23
Male	24,051	5.89	20,912	6.39	3,139	3.21
Black						
Female	2,717	$3.60	2,078	$3.88	638	$2.96
Male	3,241	5.03	2,900	5.27	341	3.04
Hispanic[1]						
Female	1,162	$3.45	878	$3.60	284	$3.18
Male	1,875	4.88	1,694	5.09	181	3.12

[1]Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. According to the 1970 census, 96 percent of the Hispanic population was racially classified as white.

Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table III-12

Median earnings of year-round full-time civilian workers, by occupation group and sex, 1981

(Persons 15 years of age and over)

Occupation group	Women	Men	Dollar gap	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's
Total	$12,001	$20,260	$ 8,259	59.2	68.8
Professional and technical workers	16,523	26,544	10,021	62.2	60.6
Managers and administrators	14,979	26,856	11,877	55.8	79.3
Sales workers	11,353	22,169	10,816	51.2	95.3
Clerical workers	11,703	17,310	5,607	67.6	47.9
Craft and kindred workers	13,212	20,659	7,447	64.0	56.4
Operatives, including transport	10,316	17,159	6,843	60.1	66.3
Laborers (except farm)	10,414	15,098	4,684	69.0	45.0
Service workers (except private household)	8,162	11,472	3,310	71.1	40.6

Source: *Current Population Reports*, P-60, No. 134 (Advance Report), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

managers and administrators (58.3 percent) and operatives (60.8 percent). Women clerical workers earned only 62.1 percent of what male clerical workers earned.

Comparison of Earnings by Industry

An analysis of 15 major industry groups shows that women's median earnings vary greatly by industry in comparison with the median earnings of men (table III-13). The six industries in which women fare the best in relation to men are agriculture, forestry, and fishing; construction; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; business and repair services; entertainment and recreation services; and public administration. Women's median earnings in all of these industries in 1981 were about two-thirds of men's earnings and ranged from 65.8 to 70.1 percent of the men's earnings.

Women in the middle earnings ratio group worked in professional and related services, durable goods, personal services, retail trade, wholesale trade, and manufacturing. Women's earnings in these industries ranged from 60.3 to 55.9 percent of men's earnings.

Women in the lowest earnings ratio group worked in nondurable goods; and finance, insurance, and real estate. Women in these industries had earnings of only 53.2 and 53.0 percent of men's earnings.

Table III-13

Median earnings of year-round full-time workers, by industry, occupation, and sex, 1981

(Persons 15 years of age and over)

Industry and occupation of longest job	Women	Men	Dollar gap	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's
Total	$12,001	$20,260	$ 8,259	59.2	68.8
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	5,910	8,784	2,874	67.3	48.6
Mining	(1)	25,860	—	—	—
Construction	12,427	18,746	6,319	66.3	50.8
Professional and managerial	(1)	25,701	—	—	—
Clerical and sales	11,445	20,109	8,664	56.9	75.7
Craft workers and operatives	(1)	17,803	—	—	—
Other workers	(1)	12,466	—	—	—
Manufacturing	11,877	21,259	9,382	55.9	79.0
Professional and managerial	17,009	28,305	11,296	60.1	66.4
Clerical and sales	12,445	20,611	8,166	60.4	65.6
Craft workers and operatives	10,728	19,571	8,843	54.8	82.4
Other workers	12,013	15,741	3,728	76.3	31.0
Durable goods	12,761	21,504	8,743	59.3	68.5
Professional and managerial	17,046	28,490	11,444	59.8	67.1
Clerical and sales	12,898	20,106	7,208	64.2	55.9
Craft workers and operatives	11,826	19,765	7,939	59.8	67.1
Other workers	12,149	16,066	3,917	75.6	32.2
Nondurable goods	11,031	20,795	9,764	53.0	88.5
Professional and managerial	16,954	27,968	11,014	60.6	65.0
Clerical and sales	12,058	21,605	9,547	55.8	79.2
Craft workers and operatives	9,589	19,084	9,495	50.2	99.0
Other workers	11,786	15,389	3,603	76.6	30.6
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	15,931	22,735	6,804	70.1	42.7
Professional and managerial	17,499	28,238	10,739	62.0	61.4
Clerical and sales	15,523	21,692	6,169	71.6	39.7
Craft workers and operatives	17,350	22,152	4,802	78.3	27.7
Other workers	(1)	17,377	—	—	—
Wholesale trade	12,447	21,151	8,704	58.8	69.9
Professional and managerial	16,301	27,159	10,858	60.0	66.6
Clerical and sales	12,020	22,342	10,322	53.8	85.9
Craft workers and operatives	(1)	17,096	—	—	—
Other workers	(1)	14,247	—	—	—
Retail Trade	9,319	15,616	6,297	59.7	67.6
Professional and managerial	11,847	19,067	7,220	62.1	60.9
Clerical and sales	9,552	15,087	5,535	63.3	57.9
Craft workers and operatives	10,326	14,331	4,005	72.1	38.8
Other workers	7,013	10,429	3,416	67.2	48.7
Finance, insurance, and real estate	11,954	22,486	10,532	53.2	88.1
Professional and managerial	15,267	28,306	13,039	53.9	85.4
Clerical and sales	11,490	21,371	9,881	53.8	86.0
Craft workers and operatives	(1)	15,919	—	—	—
Other workers	(1)	11,931	—	—	—
Business and repair services	11,749	17,230	5,481	68.2	46.7
Professional and managerial	18,003	25,397	7,394	70.9	41.1

Table III-13—Continued

Median earnings of year-round full-time workers, by industry, occupation, and sex, 1981

(Persons 15 years of age and over)

Industry and occupation of longest job	Women	Men	Dollar gap	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's
Clerical and sales	11,582	18,672	7,090	62.0	61.2
Craft workers and operatives	(1)	14,373	—	—	—
Other workers	(1)	11,487	—	—	—
Personal services	7,529	12,471	4,942	60.4	65.6
Professional and managerial	13,627	16,762	3,135	81.3	23.0
Clerical and sales	10,153	(1)	—	—	—
Craft workers and operatives	7,737	11,944	4,207	64.8	54.4
Other workers	6,496	11,156	4,660	58.2	71.7
Entertainment and recreation services	11,066	15,870	4,804	69.7	43.4
Professional and related services	12,885	21,358	8,473	60.3	65.8
Professional and managerial	16,534	24,865	8,331	66.5	50.4
Clerical and sales	11,320	13,273	1,953	85.3	17.3
Craft workers and operatives	9,537	16,505	6,968	57.8	73.1
Other workers	9,095	12,012	2,917	75.7	32.1
Public administration	14,542	22,116	7,574	65.8	52.1
Professional and managerial	16,964	26,183	9,219	64.8	54.3
Clerical and sales	13,353	21,862	8,509	61.1	63.7
Craft workers and operatives	(1)	19,866	—	—	—
Other workers	(1)	20,018	—	—	—
Private household workers	5,498	(1)	—	—	—
Professional and managerial	(1)	(1)	—	—	—
Clerical and sales	(1)	(1)	—	—	—
Craft workers and operatives	(1)	(1)	—	—	—
Other workers	5,241	(1)	—	—	—
Service workers except private household	8,014	12,681	4,667	63.2	58.2
Professional and managerial	13,901	16,920	3,019	82.2	21.7
Clerical and sales	9,811	(1)	—	—	—
Craft workers and operatives	7,732	11,947	4,215	64.7	54.5
Other workers	7,133	11,249	4,116	63.4	57.7

[1]Base less than 75,000.

Source: unpublished data, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

For all industries, the median earnings of women who were full-time year-round workers in 1981 were only 59.2 percent of the median earnings of men.

Age and Income

The median annual income of women who were year-round full-time workers in 1981 changed little with age (table III-14). Beginning with a median income of $7,598 for women workers under age 20, the income rose to $13,552 for women in their late thirties or early forties, then dropped slightly for women between 45 and 64, and rose to $14,487 for women 65 and over.

Male workers who are 15 to 19 years old have higher median income ($8,252) than do women in this age group ($7,598). At 45 to 54 years of age, males have the highest income of any age group ($24,096).

At every age, women have much lower incomes than do men. The income gap is substantial for workers over 35. The greatest disparity between women's and men's incomes occurs at ages 45 to 54 during men's peak income years. In these years, the median income for

Table III-14

Annual median income in 1981 of year-round full-time workers, by age and sex

Age[1]	Income		Women's income as a percent of men's
	Women	Men	
Total	$12,457	$20,692	60.2
15 to 19 years	7,598	8,252	92.1
20 to 24 years	10,173	12,408	82.0
25 to 34 years	13,377	19,185	69.7
35 to 44 years	13,552	23,368	58.0
45 to 54 years	12,784	24,096	53.1
55 to 64 years	12,903	23,013	56.1
65 years and older	14,487	20,647	70.2

[1]As of March 1982

Source: *Current Population Reports*, P-60, No. 134 (Advance Report), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

women is only a little more than half of the income received by men.

As noted earlier, these income disparities grow largely out of differences in the work history patterns of women and men. Large numbers of girls and young women anticipate a life with family responsibilities of some duration. They prepare themselves only for intermittent labor force participation in jobs where there is a limited penalty for work discontinuity. Although offering ease of entry, these jobs are usually low paid and are often clerical, service, and retail sales positions. Moreover, as a result of their intermittent employment outside the home, women accumulate less paid work experience, job tenure, and seniority than do men. Whatever experience and seniority they do gain is often lost in job transfers or in withdrawal from the labor force to work at home.

Labor force participation rates are high for men 25 to 54 years of age, indicating a strong likelihood that they will have a continuous work career. In 1981 only 6 percent of the men aged 25 to 54 years, in comparison with 35 percent of women, were not in the labor force.

Few men in this age range are out of the labor force in order to maintain a household or care for children. In 1981 there were 40 million men in this age group who were in the labor force. Among men who were not in the labor force, 98,000 were keeping house. Because most men have a continuous labor force attachment, they are accumulating work experience and on-the-job training, establishing fraternal work relationships, and gaining seniority and job tenure. Among women in the 25-to-54 year age group, 29 million were in the labor force. Among women who were not in the labor force, 14 million were keeping house.

Because earnings usually are the largest component of income, the incidence of poverty among older women is generally a reflection of women's work histories, whereas poverty among younger women workers is often a result of their status as low-skilled and low-paid workers who maintain families. Also, younger women with children may find it difficult to work for pay while caring for their families.

Income by Marital Status

Divorced and widowed women workers tend to have substantially higher incomes than do women workers who are married or single. In the major working years, ages 25 to 64, widowed women who worked full time the year round in 1981 had incomes that were 10 percent higher than those of married women (table III-15). Women who were divorced had incomes about 15 percent higher than those of married women.

Incomes in all of the women's groups fell behind the incomes for similar men's groups. For example, the median income of single women was only 83 percent of the income of single men. This was the smallest income gap for any of the groups and reflects two major facts: One, that single workers, both male and female, are usually younger, when women's and men's earnings and income, or lack thereof, generally are most similar; and two, older single women are most likely to have continuous full attachment to the labor force.

Unlike women, men who are married have incomes higher than incomes of men of any other marital status. Among men ages 25 to 64 who were full-time year-round workers in 1981, married men living with their wives had a median income of $22,500, compared with $19,614 for men separated from their wives, $20,771 for divorced men, and $17,054 for single men. Again, the younger age factor in the single group undoubtedly entered into these results.

For black women and women of Hispanic origin, median incomes were lower in every category of marital status than the incomes of white women. Hispanic women fared the worst, with median incomes that were considerably below those of black women in nearly every group where comparisons can be made. For example, among all married women living with their husbands, the median income for women of Hispanic origin was 13 percent below that of white women and 7 percent below that of black women.

For more information on the contribution of wives' earnings to family income and on the rise of multiearner families, see chapter I.

Education and Income

It is often thought that the level of a person's education determines not only the kind of job he or she can get, but also the level of work in an occupation for which a person can qualify. Median earnings do rise, for both men and women, as more formal education is acquired.

Table III-15

Median income in 1981 of year-round full-time workers, by sex, age, marital status, race, and Hispanic origin

Sex, age, race and Hispanic origin	Total	Single	Married with spouse present	Married with spouse absent	Widowed	Divorced
All races						
Female						
18 years and over	$12,461	$11,916	$12,340	$11,866	$13,541	$14,199
18 to 24 years	9,904	9,758	10,205	9,144	(1)	9,738
25 to 64 years	13,238	14,463	12,680	12,140	13,535	14,422
65 years and over	14,487	(1)	15,002	(1)	13,799	(1)
Male						
18 years and over	20,708	14,337	22,006	18,691	20,752	20,535
18 to 24 years	11,994	11,242	13,846	12,028	(1)	12,898
25 to 64 years	21,708	17,054	22,500	19,614	21,127	20,771
65 years and over	20,647	14,094	21,303	21,083	16,143	21,027
White						
Female						
18 years and over	12,672	12,113	12,425	11,937	14,480	14,412
18 to 24 years	9,969	9,850	10,244	9,151	(1)	9,727
25 to 64 years	13,505	15,090	12,837	12,296	14,518	14,650
65 years and over	14,953	(1)	15,153	(1)	14,412	(1)
Male						
18 years and over	21,195	14,917	22,444	20,461	23,200	21,114
18 to 24 years	12,179	11,435	13,934	11,817	(1)	(1)
25 to 64 years	22,272	17,836	22,988	21,404	24,113	21,384
65 years and over	21,156	(1)	21,841	(1)	(1)	(1)
Black						
Female						
18 years and over	11,440	10,723	11,708	11,644	9,999	12,595
18 to 24 years	8,869	8,257	10,208	(1)	(1)	(1)
25 to 64 years	11,810	11,758	11,840	11,749	10,202	12,657
65 years and over	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Male						
18 years and over	14,997	11,312	16,636	14,256	(1)	15,437
18 to 24 years	10,311	9,609	12,322	(1)	(1)	(1)
25 to 64 years	15,643	12,439	16,802	14,239	(1)	15,581
65 years and over	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Hispanic origin[2]						
Female						
18 years and over	10,922	10,704	10,862	9,772	(1)	12,244
18 to 24 years	9,865	9,560	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
25 to 64 years	11,179	11,686	10,996	(1)	(1)	12,246
65 years and over	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Male						
18 years and over	15,010	10,924	16,032	11,888	(1)	17,847
18 to 24 years	10,861	9,585	12,317	(1)	(1)	(1)
25 to 64 years	15,970	12,482	16,417	(1)	(1)	17,941
65 years and over	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Base less than 75,000.
[2] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table III-16

Median income of year-round full-time workers, by educational attainment and sex, 1981

(Persons 25 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Median income		Income gap in dollars	Women's income as a percent of men's	Percent men's income exceeded women's	Marginal dollar value of increased educational attainment	
	Women (1)	Men (2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Women (6)	Men (7)
Elementary school							
Less than 8 years	$ 8,419	$12,866	$ 4,447	65.4	52.8	—	—
8 years	9,723	16,084	6,361	60.5	65.4	$1,304	$3,218
High school							
1 to 3 years	10,043	16,938	6,895	59.3	68.7	320	854
4 years	12,332	20,598	8,266	59.9	67.0	2,289	3,660
College							
1 to 3 years	14,343	22,565	8,222	63.6	57.3	2,011	1,967
4 years	16,322	26,394	10,072	61.8	61.7	1,979	3,829
5 years or more	20,148	30,434	10,286	66.2	51.1	3,826	4,040

Notes: Column 3 = column 2 minus column 1.
Column 4 = column 1 divided by column 2.
Column 5 = column 2 minus column 1, divided by column 1.
Columns 6 and 7 = absolute (median) dollar difference between successive years of school completed.

Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

However, the factor of sex enters into these equations, as shown by the fact that women who work year round and full time, and who have the same number of years of education as similarly employed men, earn substantially less than do men (table III-16). Furthermore, more than half of all women with 4 years of college had incomes in 1981 that were only slightly higher than the median income for men who had only completed the eighth grade. Women with 4 years of high school, but no college, had a lower median income than did men who had not completed elementary school.

The differences between women's and men's incomes in 1981 were smallest among persons with the fewest and the most years of education. Women with less than 8 years of schooling had incomes that were 65.4 percent of the incomes of men with similar level of education, and women with graduate and professional degrees had incomes that were 66.2 percent of the incomes of men with the same educational attainment. Women's incomes as a percent of men's were least favorable for persons with some high school (59.3 percent), and with a high school diploma (59.9 percent). The generally greater marginal return for men on investments in education is confirmed by the data in columns 6 and 7 of table III-16.

Educational attainment data by income categories also show that women have to gain more education than men to reach middle to upper income levels (table III-17). In 1981 among year-round full-time workers with incomes above $5,000, women consistently had higher educational attainment than men. For example, among persons with incomes of $20,000 to $24,999, the median educational attainment of women was 14.7 years, and that of men was 12.8 years; in the $35,000 to $49,999 income category, the median educational attainment of women was 16.4 years of school compared with 15.9 years for men.

One would expect that young women and men without work experience, but with the same level of education in the same occupational fields, would receive similar entry-level salaries. However, surveys of starting salaries for new college graduates have for many years shown differences in the "offers" that are received by women and men jobseekers. This gap has narrowed appreciably in recent years, and in certain highly technical fields the salary offers to women in their first jobs have exceeded the offers made to men. According to a survey by the National Science Foundation, women who entered the job market after graduation in June 1976 received higher salary offers than did men in 9 out of 19 fields (table III-18).

This is a marked change from the past, when salary offers to women were substantially below those of men in all fields. In 1970 the difference in offers to women and to men ranged from $1,032 less for women in accounting to $216 less in economics and finance. In 1976, the range was from $1,152 less for women in social

Table III-17

Median educational attainment of year-round full-time workers, by sex and income, 1981

(Persons 25 years of age and over)

Income	Educational attainment	
	Women	Men
Total	12.8	12.9
$1 to 1,999 or loss[1]	12.6	12.7
2,000 to 2,999	12.4	12.5
3,000 to 3,999	12.3	12.6
4,000 to 4,999	12.3	12.4
5,000 to 5,999	12.3	12.1
6,000 to 6,999	12.3	12.2
7,000 to 8,499	12.4	12.2
8,500 to 9,999	12.5	12.3
10,000 to 12,499	12.7	12.4
12,500 to 14,999	12.8	12.6
15,000 to 17,499	12.9	12.7
17,500 to 19,999	13.5	12.7
20,000 to 24,999	14.7	12.8
25,000 to 29,999	15.9	13.2
30,000 to 34,999	15.6	14.1
35,000 to 49,999	16.4	15.9
50,000 to 74,999	16.9	16.7
75,000 and over	16.1	17.0

[1] Some persons reported their annual income as a loss.

Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table III-18

Average annual salary offers, bachelor degree candidates, by curriculum and sex, 1975.

Curriculum	Women	Men
Business		
Accounting	$12,252	$12,204
General business	10,320	10,512
Marketing	9,768	10,236
Humanities and social sciences		
Humanities	8,916	9,792
Social sciences	9,240	10,392
Engineering		
Aeronautical	14,136	13,824
Chemical	15,396	15,336
Civil	13,836	13,248
Electrical	14,100	13,848
Industrial	13,968	13,644
Mechanical	14,712	14,340
Metallurgical	14,520	14,544
Science		
Agricultural	9,912	10,272
Biological	9,540	9,840
Chemistry	12,624	12,132
Computer Science	12,540	12,420
Health professions	9,900	10,596
Mathematics	11,784	11,904
Other physical and earth sciences	12,516	12,636

Source: *Women and Minorities in Science and Engineering, 1977*, National Science Foundation.

sciences, a field already dominated by women, to $588 more for women in civil engineering, a field dominated by men. These figures do not indicate whether different salaries are being offered to women and men hired by the same company for the same job, but are averages of offers by all surveyed companies that planned to employ graduates in specified fields.

Women in Poverty[16]

Advance census data show that among poor persons aged 15 and over women outnumbered men by 5.2 million in 1981. The 13.2 million women in poverty accounted for 62 percent of all persons over 15 with low incomes (table III-19).

The data show that the number of persons and families in poverty have been increasing. However, poverty is more prevalent among women than it is among men for several reasons.[17]

Working women characteristically have lower earnings than do working men. In 1981, according to advance census data, all working women earned only $7,222—this was 48 percent of the $15,061 median earned by men.

The occupations in which large numbers of women have traditionally been employed—such as service work, including private household work, and clerical work—command lower pay than the occupations in which large numbers of men have traditionally been employed—craft and kindred, professional, and managerial.

Women usually experience significantly higher unemployment rates than do men, which also makes it difficult for many women to work their way out of poverty. In addition, women are more likely than men to become

[16] The poverty definition used to derive the estimates in this section differs slightly from the one used heretofore. Technical revisions were made recently and data for the 1978 income year were used as the base year for the revised poverty definition. For a detailed description of the "revisions and their impact on poverty data," see *Current Population Reports*, P—60, No. 133, "Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level 1980."

Poverty thresholds are established by the Federal Government to use in determining eligibility for certain federally funded assistance programs. The poverty index establishes a range of income cutoffs adjusted for such factors as family size, number of children under 18 years of age, and, for one- and two-person families (15 to 64 years old and 65 years and over). The index is changed annually to adjust for changes in the cost of living. For 1981, the poverty threshold for a family of four persons was $9,287; for a two-person family unit, it was $5,917, but was established at $5,498 if the householder was over 65 years of age and $6,111 where the householder was under age 65; for a single person, it was $4,620, but ranged from $4,359 to $4,729 depending on the person's age. In this discussion of women in poverty,, the terms "poor," "in poverty," and "low income" are used interchangeably and refer to the level established by the Federal index.

[17] *Twelfth Report and Final Report, National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity, August 1980 and September 1981.*

Table III-19

Persons in poverty, by sex and age, 1981

Age	Number (in thousands)		Poverty Rate	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total, 15 years and over	13,248	8,012	14.4	9.5
15 to 17 years	1,016	927	18.0	15.9
18 to 21 years	1,501	1,084	17.9	13.4
22 to 44 years	5,381	3,373	13.4	8.7
45 to 54 years	1,162	752	10.1	7.0
54 to 59 years	676	385	11.1	7.1
60 to 64 years	740	411	13.2	9.3
65 years and over	2,773	1,080	18.6	10.5

Source: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 134, and unpublished data from the March Supplement, 1982, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

discouraged with the lack of job prospects and to discontinue their search for work. Thus, many women who want jobs are not in the labor force (neither working nor looking for work) because they think no jobs are available to them.

There were 6.9 million families falling below the poverty index, 11 percent of all 61.0 million families in the United States. The number of married-couple families in poverty was 3.4 million or nearly 7 percent of all married-couple families. These families constituted half of all families in poverty.

One of the most interesting changes in the composition of American families has been among single-parent families headed by women with no husband present. Such families numbered 9.4 million, 15 percent of all families or more than 1 in every 6 families; those in poverty totaled 3.3 million, about 35 percent of all families with a female maintaining a family. They represented slightly less than half the families in poverty. Their status is due largely to the still-escalating rates of divorce and separation and the choice by many women in all sectors of society to become or remain single heads of households. Among families headed by single parents, more than 1 of every 3 headed by a woman is poor compared with 1 of every 10 headed by a man.

Responsibilities for the care of children, especially of very young children, restrict employment and earning opportunities for many women. Expanded child care facilities—both public and private—would help to alleviate the problem.

Because they tend to live longer than men, women predominate among persons in our society whose chances of being poor are the greatest—the aged. Although the poverty rate of women exceeded that of men in virtually every age group in 1981, the greatest differential occurred among persons 65 years and over. There were 2.8 million poor women and about 1.1 million poor men in this age group. Almost 20 percent of all women aged 65 and over were in poverty, compared with about 10 percent of similarly aged men. The earnings gap means that working women eligible for social security benefits based on their own earnings records can count on a level of social security income which is proportionately lower than men's.

Finally, sex and age discrimination prevent women, both white and minority, from taking as full advantage of job market opportunities as their male counterparts. Although title VII of the Civil Rights Act and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (see chapter V) prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex, age, and race, employment patterns have been slow to change.

The incidence of poverty among mothers is particularly high.[18] About 1 in 6 mothers (16 percent) was poor in 1981; about 2 in 5 black mothers (39 percent) and 1 in 8 white mothers (13 percent) lived in poverty (table III-19). About two-thirds of all such mothers were white, double the number of black mothers. The chances of mothers being in this poor category varied not only by race but also by work experience and by the ages and number of children in the family.

The average poor single mother was 33.4 years old, a high school graduate, with a family of 3.4 persons of which 2.26 were children.

Low-income mothers who worked—40 percent of all low-income mothers—had a 10 percent poverty rate. The 3.2 million mothers who did not work had a 28 percent poverty rate. About the same proportion of low-income mothers heading households worked compared with poor mothers in husband-wife families (39 percent), but the poverty rate for the single parents was 27 percent versus 5 percent among mothers in two-parent families. Five percent of the mothers in poor married-couple families had spouses who did not work compared with slightly over 1 percent of such women in comparable nonpoor families.

The lowest poverty rate—1.1 percent—was for white mothers in married-couple families who worked full time and whose children were all under 6 years old. In all categories, the poverty rate for black mothers exceeded that of white mothers; on the average it was 3 times that of white mothers. The highest poverty rate—96.3 percent—was for black mothers who did not work in the previous year and who had children both under 6 years old and between 6 and 17 years old. Only when they worked full time the year round did black mothers have poverty rates of less than 10 percent.

In 1981 the number of poor families in the United States was 6.9 million, or 11.2 percent of all families. Large numbers of women maintained such families. Among them were nearly 1.3 million women, 40 percent

[18] In census data, the term "mother" refers to women with a child or children who are under age 18.

Table III-20

Working mothers—women with own children under 18 years old, by poverty status in 1981, work experience, age of children, and race

(Numbers in thousands)

Mother's work experience	All races			White			Black		
		Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total
Total	32,082	5,270	16.4	26,786	3,391	12.7	4,394	1,699	38.7
Mother worked last year	20,816	2,118	10.2	17,485	1,454	8.3	2,749	606	22.1
50 to 52 weeks	11,105	581	5.2	9,170	389	4.2	1,595	177	11.1
40 to 49 weeks	2,360	189	8.0	2,026	134	6.6	261	50	19.2
27 to 39 weeks	2,245	288	12.8	1,905	195	10.2	283	83	29.3
14 to 26 weeks	2,578	466	18.1	2,223	332	14.9	300	124	41.5
13 weeks or less	2,527	595	23.5	2,160	404	18.7	310	171	55.2
Mother worked full time	13,685	1,185	8.7	11,025	774	7.0	2,198	377	17.2
50 to 52 weeks	8,614	351	4.1	6,881	213	3.1	1,427	132	9.2
40 to 49 weeks	1,450	109	7.5	1,202	75	6.2	191	30	15.7
27 to 39 weeks	1,246	144	11.6	1,006	101	10.1	202	35	17.5
14 to 26 weeks	1,335	278	20.8	1,082	186	17.2	222	89	40.0
13 weeks or less	1,040	303	29.1	854	199	23.3	156	91	58.5
Mother did not work last year	11,266	3,152	28.0	9,301	1,937	20.8	1,645	1,092	66.4
Women with children under 6 years only									
Total	8,563	1,560	18.2	7,147	1,015	14.2	1,170	490	41.9
Mother worked last year	5,168	586	11.3	4,398	424	9.6	630	148	23.5
50 to 52 weeks	2,092	70	3.3	1,742	53	3.0	288	16	5.5
40 to 49 weeks	631	54	8.5	556	42	7.6	54	9	(')
27 to 39 weeks	625	70	11.3	534	51	9.6	69	18	(')
14 to 26 weeks	868	161	18.6	749	120	16.0	104	40	38.5
13 weeks or less	952	231	24.2	817	158	19.3	115	65	56.0
Mother worked full time	3,362	333	9.9	2,750	232	8.4	491	90	18.4
50 to 52 weeks	1,632	38	2.3	1,308	27	2.1	264	10	3.9
40 to 49 weeks	406	35	8.6	346	25	7.1	40	9	(')
27 to 39 weeks	402	42	10.4	330	29	8.7	55	13	(')
14 to 26 weeks	495	98	19.9	413	73	17.7	74	25	(')
13 weeks or less	427	121	28.2	353	79	22.4	58	34	(')
Mother did not work last year	3,395	974	28.7	2,749	590	21.5	540	343	63.5
Women with children under 6 years and 6 to 17 years									
Total	6,220	1,428	23.0	4,997	908	18.2	1,012	463	45.8
Mother worked last year	3,442	518	15.1	2,733	343	12.5	598	159	26.6
50 to 52 weeks	1,515	145	9.6	1,144	89	7.8	312	51	16.3
40 to 49 weeks	435	40	9.2	364	27	7.4	59	13	(')
27 to 39 weeks	399	62	15.4	319	40	12.5	68	17	(')
14 to 26 weeks	556	130	23.4	453	92	20.4	89	36	(')
13 weeks or less	537	142	26.5	452	95	20.9	70	43	(')
Mother worked full time	2,061	291	14.1	1,491	169	11.3	490	112	22.9
50 to 52 weeks	1,114	91	8.2	775	41	5.3	287	47	16.3
40 to 49 weeks	254	26	10.2	196	19	9.6	49	6	(')
27 to 39 weeks	217	37	17.2	154	25	16.1	55	9	(')
14 to 26 weeks	270	72	26.6	199	45	22.5	64	26	(')
13 weeks or less	207	65	31.3	166	39	23.4	36	24	(')
Mother did not work last year	2,777	910	32.8	2,265	565	25.0	413	304	73.5
Women with children 6 to 17 years only									
Total	17,299	2,281	13.2	14,641	1,469	10.0	2,213	745	33.7
Mother worked last year	12,205	1,013	8.3	10,354	688	6.6	1,521	299	19.7
50 to 52 weeks	7,498	366	4.9	6,284	247	3.9	995	111	11.1
40 to 49 weeks	1,294	95	7.4	1,107	65	5.9	148	29	19.2

Table III-20

Working mothers—women with own children under 18 years old, by poverty status in 1981, work experience, age of children, and race

(Numbers in thousands)

Mother's work experience	All races			White			Black		
		Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total
27 to 39 weeks	1,220	156	12.8	1,052	104	9.9	146	47	32.4
14 to 26 weeks	1,155	175	15.1	1,021	119	11.7	107	49	45.6
13 weeks or less	1,039	222	21.3	890	152	17.0	124	64	51.2
Mother worked full time	8,262	561	6.8	6,785	373	5.5	1,217	175	14.4
50 to 52 weeks	5,867	222	3.8	4,797	145	3.0	876	74	8.5
40 to 49 weeks	790	48	6.1	660	32	4.8	103	15	14.7
27 to 39 weeks	628	65	10.4	522	48	9.1	92	13	14.4
14 to 26 weeks	570	108	19.0	471	68	14.4	84	38	45.3
13 weeks or less	406	117	28.9	335	81	24.1	62	34	(1)
Mother did not work last year	5,093	1,268	24.9	4,288	781	18.2	692	446	64.5

(1) Base less than 75,000.

Source: Table 27, March Supplement, 1982 (Unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

of the total, who were in the labor force (table III-21). A large proportion of these women (28 percent) were unemployed. Another 2 million women maintaining poor families were not in the labor force. (See also the section on Women Who Maintain Families in chapter I.)

The kinds of occupations in which women were employed were a significant factor in women's poverty rates. The highest rates of poverty among employed women who maintained families and unrelated individuals[19] were for persons in traditional, low-paying occupations—private household work, other service work, operative work, and sales. For example, black women who maintained families and were private household workers had a poverty rate of 63.7 percent (table III-22). Even among women who worked year round full time, 7 percent remain in poverty; 5 percent of the white women heads of households and 14 percent of black women. The lowest poverty rates for women workers who maintained families or who were unrelated individuals were for professional, technical, and kindred workers or managerial workers. These women were likely to receive higher pay than women in other occupations.

Poverty and Education

Although the average (median) educational attainment of poor women and men was comparable in 1981, 11.1 and 11.0 years, respectively, and 42.3 percent of the women and 42.4 percent of the men were high school graduates, the effects of poverty and race on educational attainment and of educational attainment and race on poverty status can be seen by comparing the data relating to those in poverty with those of the total population. Educational attainment (median years of school completed) for all women and men was 12.4 and 12.5 years, respectively; 67.5 percent of the women and 67.6 percent of the men completed high school. White women and men and black women and men of all income levels had median educational attainments of 12.5, 12.6, 12.1 and 12.1 years, respectively. The percentages graduating from high school were 69.4, 69.3 53.6 and 52.9. Poor white women and men and black women and men had completed an average of 11.3, 11.4, 10.8 and 10.4 years of school, respectively, and the percentage of each who were high school graduates was 45.0, 45.7, 35.8 and 31.2 percent.

Data on educational attainment also confirm that women were much more likely to be living in poverty than were men. The highest poverty rates were for persons with the lowest educational attainment—41.5 percent of the women with 1 to 5 years of schooling were poor, in comparison with 27.5 percent of the men (table III-23). The poverty rate was above 20 percent for women who had not graduated from high school.

Poverty rates were highest among black women. Of those who did not complete elementary school, 54 percent were in poverty; 46 percent of those who had completed 1 to 3 years of high school were in poverty. Graduation from high school or some college attendance significantly reduced the proportion of black women in poverty: black women who completed high school had a

[19] Refers to persons 15 years old and over who are not living with relatives. These persons may constitute a one-person household, be part of a household including one or more families, or reside in group quarters such as a roominghouse.

poverty rate of 28 percent, and those with 1 year or more of college had a rate of 16.1 percent.

Poverty rates for black women declined somewhat by age, with the lowest rates among those 35 to 44 and 45 to 54 years of age and the highest among the young and the elderly. This is the same pattern as among white women, but poverty rates for black women were generally 2 to 4 times higher for women of similar age and educational attainment.

Table III-21

Employment status of women in poverty who maintain families, by race, 1981[1]

(Numbers in thousands)

Employment status	All races		White		Black	
	Below poverty level	Percent of total	Below poverty level	Percent of total	Below poverty level	Percent of total
Total	3,252	34.6	1,814	27.4	1,377	52.9
In civilian labor force	1,286	22.6	745	18.1	520	35.7
Employed	926	18.3	572	15.2	334	28.2
Unemployed	360	57.7	173	49.7	186	69.1
Not in civilian labor force	1,966	53.0	1,069	42.8	856	74.6

[1] Persons 15 years of age and over.

Source: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 134 (Advance Report), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table III-22

Occupation groups of low-income persons who maintained families and unrelated individuals[1] and were wage and salary workers, by race and sex, 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation of longest job	All races			White			Black		
		Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total
Females maintaining families									
Worked last year	5,834	1,280	21.9	4,288	779	18.2	1,429	480	33.6
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	792	54	6.9	631	43	6.8	136	11	7.7
Managers and administrators (except farm)	390	34	8.7	358	32	8.9	26	2	(B)
Sales workers	273	52	19.0	252	43	16.9	16	7	(B)
Clerical and kindred workers	1,849	265	14.3	1,406	171	12.2	407	89	22.0
Craft and kindred workers	116	18	15.7	103	15	14.8	13	3	(B)
Operatives (except transport)	782	217	27.7	513	125	24.3	248	86	34.8
Transport equipment operatives	50	11	(B)	33	9	(B)	17	2	(B)
Laborers (except farm)	97	32	(B)	64	21	(B)	30	10	(B)
Farmers and farm managers	9	6	(B)	9	6	(B)	—	—	(B)
Farm laborers and supervisors	10	8	(B)	5	4	(B)	4	3	(B)
Service workers (except private household)	1,308	496	37.9	852	282	33.2	438	207	47.3
Private household workers	159	87	55.0	62	28	(B)	93	60	63.7
Males maintaining families									
Worked last year	41,463	2,196	5.3	37,635	1,831	4.9	2,889	289	10.0
Professional, technical and kindred workers	7,059	114	1.6	6,539	97	1.5	288	10	3.5
Managers and administrators (except farm)	7,001	220	3.1	6,668	189	2.8	221	20	9.3

Table III-22—Continued

Occupation groups of low-income persons who maintained families and unrelated individuals[1] and were wage and salary workers, by race and sex, 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation of longest job	All races			White			Black		
		Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total	Total	Number	Percent of total
Sales workers	2,493	63	2.5	2,424	57	2.3	45	6	(2)
Clerical and kindred workers	2,558	57	2.2	2,204	42	1.9	283	9	3.3
Craft and kindred workers	9,353	463	5.0	8,690	407	4.7	497	37	7.5
Operatives (except transport)	4,240	267	6.3	3,654	215	5.9	486	42	9.3
Transport equipment operatives	2,327	133	5.7	2,013	100	5.0	282	31	10.9
Laborers (except farm)	2,036	224	11.0	1,690	167	9.9	287	46	15.9
Farmers and farm managers	1,085	321	29.6	1,050	308	29.3	30	19	(2)
Farm laborers and supervisors	468	130	27.8	393	95	24.1	58	30	(2)
Service workers (except private household)	2,807	197	7.0	2,297	152	6.6	410	42	10.2
Private household workers	35	6	(2)	11	2	(2)	24	4	(2)
Female unrelated individuals									
Worked last year	8,014	1,165	14.5	7,088	960	13.5	781	182	23.4
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	1,709	86	5.0	1,561	81	5.2	116	5	4.2
Managers and administrators (except farm)	673	32	4.8	638	28	4.4	31	4	(2)
Sales workers	504	81	16.0	481	76	15.8	18	2	(2)
Clerical and kindred workers	2,328	242	10.4	2,105	213	10.1	175	22	12.5
Craft and kindred workers	166	6	3.5	146	4	2.8	18	2	—
Operatives (except transport)	668	80	12.0	560	66	11.9	85	12	13.5
Transport equipment operatives	37	5	(2)	26	—	(2)	7	2	(2)
Laborers (except farm)	106	19	18.0	85	15	17.3	17	1	(2)
Farmers and farm managers	22	7	(2)	21	6	(2)	—	—	(2)
Farm laborers and supervisors	39	32	(2)	26	19	(2)	13	13	(2)
Service workers (except private household)	1,470	429	29.2	1,247	367	29.4	204	61	29.7
Private household workers	292	146	50.0	190	86	44.9	97	58	59.8
Male unrelated individuals									
Worked last year	9,634	1,160	12.0	8,242	924	11.2	1,173	207	17.6
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	1,900	122	6.4	1,717	114	6.6	118	6	4.6
Managers and administrators (except farm)	1,179	100	8.4	1,063	82	7.7	86	9	11.0
Sales workers	598	52	8.6	570	47	8.3	19	3	(2)
Clerical and kindred workers	700	47	6.7	569	41	7.2	115	5	4.2
Craft and kindred workers	1,784	194	10.9	1,574	164	10.4	183	28	15.5
Operatives (except transport)	975	106	10.9	814	89	10.9	143	15	10.3
Transport equipment operatives	514	33	6.5	405	26	6.5	104	6	5.8
Laborers except farm	728	184	25.3	545	119	21.8	175	65	37.1
Farmers and farm managers	83	27	32.5	77	24	30.7	2	—	—
Farm laborers and supervisors	140	50	35.5	90	32	35.7	42	16	38.8
Service workers (except private household)	1,028	247	24.0	816	187	22.9	181	54	29.5
Private household workers	6	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—

[1] Refers to persons 15 years old and over who are not living with relatives. These persons may constitute a one-person household, be part of a household including one or more other families, or reside in group quarters such as a roominghouse.

[2] Base less than 75,000.

Source: Table 25, March Supplement, 1982 (Unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table III-23

Poverty rates of women and men, by educational attainment, age, and race, 1981

Years of school completed	Total	Age							
		15 to 17	18 to 21	22 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 59	60 to 64	65 and over
All races, women									
Total	14.4	18.0	17.9	14.2	11.9	10.1	11.1	13.2	18.6
No years of school completed	41.4	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	46.2
Elementary: 1 to 5 years	41.5	(')	(')	44.5	39.5	41.3	44.1	35.9	41.4
6 and 7 years	32.8	50.0	51.2	39.1	41.5	25.9	27.5	27.6	30.4
8 years	24.8	26.2	41.0	40.7	28.2	21.3	20.3	17.6	23.3
High School: 1 to 3 years	21.6	14.9	29.3	35.2	24.2	18.2	15.7	16.1	18.2
4 years	10.7	16.5	14.7	13.5	9.7	5.7	6.6	9.3	10.2
College: 1 year or more	6.6	(')	11.0	7.2	5.0	4.4	3.7	5.6	7.3
All races, men									
Total	9.5	15.9	13.4	9.3	7.5	7.0	7.1	8.6	10.5
No years of school completed	36.9	(')	(')	35.9	(')	(')	(')	(')	38.4
Elementary: 1 to 5 years	27.5	(')	(')	26.3	30.3	29.7	25.9	26.1	27.1
6 and 7 years	20.6	36.3	25.7	29.5	26.5	18.1	15.0	14.6	15.5
8 years	15.4	21.3	32.3	25.6	17.5	11.6	13.9	9.6	10.8
High School: 1 to 3 years	14.4	13.1	22.6	19.6	13.6	10.2	8.5	8.7	10.4
4 years	7.4	18.8	9.7	9.0	6.7	5.3	4.3	6.6	4.8
College: 1 year or more	4.5	(')	7.4	5.8	3.4	2.4	3.4	3.9	3.1
White women									
Total	11.6	12.9	14.2	11.3	9.6	7.4	8.8	11.0	16.2
No years of school completed	37.7	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	41.6
Elementary: 1 to 5 years	36.4	(')	(')	42.0	38.6	37.5	38.6	25.8	34.9
6 and 7 years	28.6	40.2	46.5	33.9	36.5	17.9	22.5	22.6	28.1
8 years	21.7	21.1	39.1	36.3	24.5	15.3	15.5	16.0	21.8
High School: 1 to 3 years	16.5	10.2	22.2	28.0	18.9	13.5	11.4	13.8	16.3
4 years	8.8	16.7	11.6	10.7	7.8	4.5	6.4	8.5	9.7
College: 1 year or more	5.6	(')	9.5	5.9	4.4	4.0	3.4	5.4	6.6
White men									
Total	7.8	11.9	10.4	8.0	6.5	5.9	5.9	7.3	8.5
No years of school completed	33.7	(')	(')	32.1	(')	(')	(')	(')	35.8
Elementary: 1 to 5 years	23.5	(')	(')	26.7	29.9	24.1	20.6	22.7	21.8
6 and 7 years	18.0	26.1	(')	28.4	23.1	17.3	14.0	13.6	13.4
8 years	13.3	16.2	27.9	24.4	17.0	11.2	12.4	8.5	9.6
High School: 1 to 3 years	11.2	9.8	17.0	15.3	10.9	9.2	6.6	8.1	9.0
4 years	6.3	(')	7.5	7.6	5.8	4.7	3.9	6.0	4.4
College: 1 year or more	4.1	(')	6.6	5.3	3.1	2.1	3.3	3.4	2.9
Black women									
Total	35.0	44.5	38.5	33.4	29.0	30.0	32.4	35.2	43.5
No years of school completed	59.9	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')
Elementary: 1 to 5 years	59.4	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	57.6
6 and 7 years	49.1	(')	(')	(')	(')	46.7	41.1	44.6	43.8
8 years	48.0	49.5	(')	(')	42.6	49.3	(')	(')	45.0
High School: 1 to 3 years	46.0	41.7	56.9	62.2	41.6	35.3	37.7	33.6	37.4
4 years	28.0	(')	33.6	30.9	24.9	22.1	11.1	26.0	24.7
College: 1 year or more	16.1	(')	21.3	18.3	10.1	10.4	(')	(')	20.7
Black men									
Total	22.7	39.2	30.8	17.8	15.6	16.8	19.0	21.9	32.3
No years of school completed	48.9	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')	(')
Elementary: 1 to 5 years	39.0	(')	(')	(')	(')	44.1	(')	34.1	42.3
6 and 7 years	31.8	63.6	(')	(')	33.8	22.8	(')	(')	31.7
8 years	31.8	46.7	(')	(')	(')	14.4	(')	(')	29.7
High School: 1 to 3 years	31.4	34.0	43.3	37.4	23.6	16.0	22.8	16.2	23.7
4 years	16.1	(')	23.0	16.5	12.6	13.1	6.7	19.6	15.6
College: 1 year or more	9.2	(')	15.1	9.9	5.4	4.7	(')	(')	(')

' Base less than 75,000.

Source: Table 2, July 1982 (Unpublished data), U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Chapter IV
EDUCATION, TRAINING, AND EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Education of Women in the Labor Force[1]

The employment status of women is greatly affected by educational attainment. The more education women have received, the greater is the likelihood that they will be in paid employment. On the average, women in the labor force have more schooling than women who are not in the labor force.

Based on March 1981 Current Population Survey data on educational attainment in calendar year 1980, the median years of school completed was 12.7 for women 16 years of age and over in the labor force, compared with 12.1 for other women in the same age group (table IV-1). Twice as great a proportion of women in the labor force (15.7 percent) as women not in the labor force (7.5 percent) were college graduates. A much higher proportion of women not in the labor force had 8 or fewer years of schooling (22.9 percent) than did those in the labor force (5.9 percent).

Among women in the labor force in March 1981, 79.8 percent (37.0 million) had completed at least 4 years of high school, including 15.7 percent who had also completed 4 or more years of college (chart IV-1). At the lower end of the education scale, nearly 6 percent of the women workers had 8 or fewer years of schooling and about 14 percent had completed only 1 to 3 years of high school.

Rise in Educational Attainment

In March 1981, 47.4 percent of women workers of ages 18 to 64 years had completed 4 years of high school (table IV-2). Although this proportion was relatively stable during the 1970's, it has increased dramatically since 1940, when the proportion was 29 percent. The greatest changes in recent years have been in the increasing proportion of women workers with a college education and in the decreasing proportion of those with 8 or fewer years of school. The proportion of women in the labor force who were between 18 and 64 years of age and who had completed 4 or more years of college was 16.5 percent in 1981 compared with 12.5 percent in 1973 and 6.6 percent in 1940. At the lower end of the educational scale, the proportion of women workers with 8 or fewer years of schooling has steadily declined, reaching 5.3 percent in March 1981. In the early 1950's, when women began to come into the labor force in large numbers, more than 30 percent of women workers had completed 8 or fewer years of schooling.

The proportion of women workers with at least 1 year of college reached 36 percent in March 1981, up 9 percentage points from March 1973. Despite widespread publicity about the weakening job market for college graduates, these persons continue to have a relative economic advantage over other workers. They are most likely to be in the labor force and least likely to be unemployed, and more of them continue to hold the highest paying professional and managerial jobs. As discussed in chapter II, the dramatic increase in the employment of women in managerial jobs is largely the result of growth in the number of women who have attended college and in the number who have attended graduate school, as well as in changing attitudes about women and work.

The rise in the educational attainment of women has more than kept pace with projections published in 1973 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.[2] The percentage of women workers completing 4 years of high school was projected to reach more than 46 percent by 1985. The

[1] Data on educational attainment are derived from the Current Population Survey conducted by the Census Bureau for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The last full BLS report on educational attainment is *Educational Attainment of Workers—Some Trends from 1973 to 1978*, Special Labor Force Report 225, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Information on March 1981 educational attainment is from unpublished data, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] *Education of Workers: Projections to 1990*, Special Labor Force Report 160, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table IV-1

Distribution of women and men in and out of the labor force, by years of school completed, March 1981

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

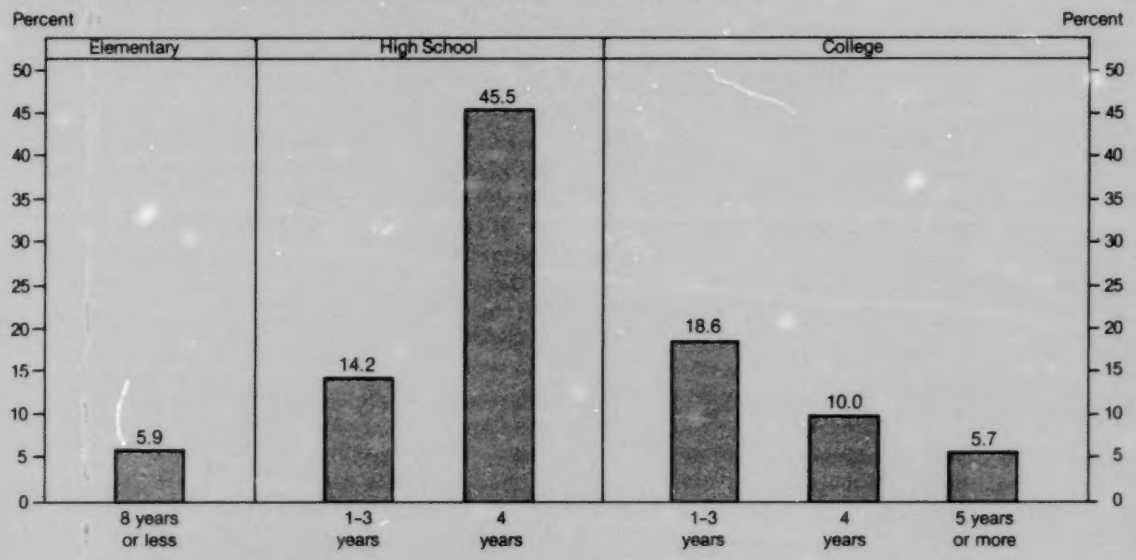
Number of school years completed	Women		Men	
	In labor force	Not in labor force	In labor force	Not in labor force
Total (number in thousands)	46,414	42,844	61,306	18,887
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Elementary:				
1 to 4 years	0.8	4.6	1.5	7.2
5 to 7 years	2.1	7.7	3.3	9.9
8 years	3.0	10.6	4.6	13.3
High School:				
1 to 3 years	14.2	22.4	15.4	27.3
4 years	45.5	34.9	37.5	22.3
College:				
1 to 3 years	18.6	12.4	17.4	12.6
4 years	10.0	5.5	11.3	4.2
5 years or more	5.7	2.0	9.0	3.3
Median school years completed	12.7	12.1	12.7	11.2

Source: *Educational Attainment of Workers, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.*

Chart IV-1.

Nearly 8 out of 10 women workers are at least high school graduates.

Distribution of women workers, by highest number of school years completed, March 1981.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table IV-2

Years of school completed by women in the civilian labor force, selected years, 1940-81[1]

(Women 18 to 64 years of age)

Year[2]	Total Number (in thousands)	Percent distribution by years of school completed							Median years of school completed	
			Elementary		High School		College			
		Total percent	Less than 5 years[3]	5 to 8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years or more	Women	Men
1940[4]	13,150	100.0	6.4	30.9	18.7	28.6	8.8	6.6	11.0	8.6
1952	18,310	100.0	5.2	25.0	18.4	34.7	9.0	7.7	12.0	10.6
1957	19,548	100.0	3.9	21.9	19.1	37.3	9.3	8.4	12.1	11.3
1959	20,431	100.0	3.3	20.6	19.2	39.0	9.8	8.2	12.2	11.7
1962	21,996	100.0	2.8	17.8	18.8	39.7	11.2	9.7	12.3	12.1
1964	23,327	100.0	2.1	17.1	18.9	41.8	10.7	9.5	12.3	12.2
1965	23,845	100.0	2.0	15.8	18.9	42.9	10.5	9.9	12.3	12.2
1966	24,571	100.0	1.7	15.0	18.5	43.9	11.0	9.9	12.3	12.2
1967	25,674	100.0	1.9	14.0	18.5	43.8	11.9	9.9	12.4	12.3
1968	26,859	100.0	1.6	13.3	17.7	44.5	12.3	10.6	12.4	12.3
1969	27,783	100.0	1.6	12.1	17.4	45.9	12.5	10.5	12.4	12.3
1970	28,950	100.0	1.4	11.3	17.0	46.3	13.3	10.7	12.4	12.4
1971	29,429	100.0	1.3	10.7	16.4	46.2	14.0	11.4	12.5	12.4
1972	30,566	100.0	1.2	9.6	16.4	47.1	13.9	11.8	12.5	12.5
1973	31,530	100.0	1.2	8.7	15.5	47.6	14.6	12.5	12.5	12.5
1974	32,857	100.0	1.1	8.1	14.8	46.6	16.0	13.5	12.6	12.5
1975	34,009	100.0	1.0	7.7	14.3	47.0	16.1	14.0	12.6	12.6
1976	35,240	100.0	0.9	7.0	13.8	46.7	16.8	14.7	12.6	12.6
1977	36,706	100.0	0.9	6.6	13.8	46.6	17.1	15.1	12.6	12.6
1978	38,278	100.0	0.9	6.1	13.4	46.6	17.9	15.0	12.6	12.7
1979	40,076	100.0	0.9	5.4	12.7	46.6	18.7	15.7	12.7	12.7
1981	43,570	100.0	0.7	4.6	11.3	47.4	19.5	16.5	12.7	12.7

[1] Data for 1940-59 include only persons reporting educational attainment.

[2] Figures for each year refer to March of that year, with the exception of 1940 and 1952; for these years data refer to April and October, respectively.

[3] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

[4] 1940 Census of Population figures revised for comparability with labor force estimates from the Current Population Survey for 1952-59.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

actual educational attainment of these workers exceeded that level in March 1980, when the proportion reached 47.4 percent. The proportion of women attaining 4 years of high school education plus those with 1 to 5 or more years of college was projected to increase to nearly 78 percent. In March 1980 this proportion was 83.4 percent, as indicated in table IV-2.

When the projections were made, BLS anticipated a slowdown in the growth rate of the labor force during the 1980's. It was expected that the slowdown would be accompanied by an accelerated decline in the number of less-educated workers (8 years of school or less) and by a more moderate rate of growth for more highly educated workers. These expectations were based on the projected labor force participation rates and the effect over time of a changing age distribution of workers with different amounts of schooling. However, the labor force participation rate for women continued to move up strongly throughout the 1970's and even during the 1973-74 economic downturn. In addition, Census Bureau data show that enrollments are up for women. It seems likely that the educational attainment of women will continue to rise.

The measurement of educational attainment has traditionally focused on years of school completed without much attention to the underlying measurement of retention of students through each level of educational attainment. The rising educational attainment of workers, particularly of women and minorities, can be traced to the growing proportions of these groups completing high school and going on to college. Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that about half of the 3.2 million young adults (ages 16-24 years) who had graduated from high school in 1978 were in college in the fall of that year. Moreover, there were no statistical differences between the proportions of young men and young women, or of black and white high school graduates, who went on to college. Similarly, a study by the National Center for Education Statistics reported that in 1980-81 women made up 51 percent of the total college student body, up

Table IV-3

College-age population and degree recipients, by level of degree and race/ethnic group, 1979

Item	Total	White[1]	Black[1]	Hispanic	American Indian/ Alaskan Native	Asian American/ Pacific Islander	Non-resident alien
				Percent distribution			
College-age population (18-24 years)	100.0	81.2	9.1	4.9	0.7	2.4	2.5
Bachelor's	100.0	87.3	6.6	2.2	0.4	1.7	1.9
Master's	100.0	83.0	6.5	1.8	0.3	1.8	6.5
Doctor's	100.0	80.0	3.9	1.3	0.3	2.5	12.0
First professional	100.0	88.4	6.5	1.8	0.4	2.1	0.7

[1] Non Hispanic

Note: Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics*, 1981, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

from 41 percent 10 years earlier. Growth in college enrollment is projected to grow only slightly, from 12,097,000 in 1980–81 to 12,101,000 in 1990–91. At that time women are projected to be 52 percent of enrollees.

Despite the recent strides black and Hispanic population groups have been making in completing high school and going on to college, data on degrees awarded to race/ethnic groups show that most minorities (except Asian American/Pacific Islanders) are not represented in proportion to their college-age population (18–24 years). Table IV-3 shows the most recent data on race/ethnic groups among degree recipients, by level (bachelor's, master's, doctor's, and first professional), for 1979.

In recent years there has been a growing awareness that more attention must be paid to the retention of minority students in school at all levels below college to assure that more of these students will meet college requirements. This need is reflected in the growth of programs that focus on retention. For example, the National Academy of Sciences has created a special Committee on Minorities in Engineering, which has developed a program to identify and retain minority students in engineering. The committee program is divided into three phases: precollege, college and career development. Participants at the committee's national symposium in September 1978 found that programs designed to retain minority students in school require some of the following elements:

- Effective counseling by faculty, particularly by minority faculty members, in order to provide continuing motivation and to help students develop insights about their professional opportunities and career alternatives.
- Timely academic support, including tutoring by faculty or other students, short courses in specific study techniques, study groups, videotaped instruction, and modules for self-paced study.
- Flexibility in courses of study, including curriculum stretch-out programs, reduced course loads, and leaves of absence in order to better meet the personal and academic needs of the students.[3]

Another aspect of education that is receiving increased attention is the precollege preparation of girls and women for college majors which lead to occupations that are nontraditional for women. For example, deficiencies in mathematics skills often have prevented women from entering such technical fields as science and engineering. In this particular area, the National Institute of Education funded a 2-year survey to identify factors that work against women's acquisition of a solid foundation in mathematics and the pursuit of careers requiring this foundation. The hypothesis that males dominate in mathematics because they have superior ability in spatial visualization is not supported by the results of the study.[4] Three variables were found to have the greatest effect on the participation of women in mathematics:

- A positive attitude toward mathematics;
- A perceived need for mathematics for future career and educational plans; and
- The influences of significant other persons, including parents, teachers, and counselors.

Educational Attainment of Women Workers by Selected Characteristics

Age—Younger workers, both women and men, have more education than older workers. For example, 89.7 percent of women workers 20 to 34 years old in March 1981 had completed at least 4 years of high school, compared with 77 percent of women workers 35 years of

[3] *Building the Multiplier Effect: Summary of a National Symposium*, 1979, National Academy of Sciences, Committee on Minorities in Engineering.

[4] *Achievement and Participation of Women in Mathematics: An Overview*, 1980, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Colo.

Table IV-4

Distribution of women workers by educational attainment and age, March 1981

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Age	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Less than 4 years of high school	High school graduates			
				Total	4 years of high school	1 to 3 years of college	4 years or more of college
Total	46,414	100.0	9,329	37,038	21,118	8,633	7,287
			20.1	79.8	45.5	18.6	15.7
16 to 19 years	3,978	100.0	2,182	1,951	1,532	419	2.0
			54.9	49.0	38.5	10.5	0.1
20 to 34 years	20,227	100.0	2,080	18,159	9,183	5,022	3,954
			10.3	89.8	45.4	24.8	19.5
35 years and over	22,209	100.0	5,085	17,111	10,399	3,371	3,341
			22.9	77.0	46.8	15.2	15.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

age or older (table IV-4). In the younger group 24.8 percent had 1 to 3 years of college and 19.5 percent were college graduates. Among the older women, the proportion was about equal (15 percent) for those who had 1 to 3 years of college and those who were college graduates.

Disparities in the education of younger and older age groups of women are significant in terms of the jobs these workers can obtain and the wages they can command. With shifts occurring in the U.S. economy from the production of goods to the provision of services—only about one job in three is now in agriculture, manufacturing, mining, or construction—demands are increasing for literacy and communications skills and for specialized knowledge in academic disciplines. Women who lack an adequate educational preparation are most likely to be locked into jobs that are low-paying and in declining sectors of the economy.

Sex—The gap between women and men workers in median years of school completed has been narrowing since 1940 and has now disappeared. In April 1940 the median years completed by women 18 to 64 years old was 11.0—2.4 years above the median for men. By March 1981 the median for both groups of workers was 12.7 years, as shown on table IV-5 (these data are for women and men 16 years of age and over).

However, there were some differences between women and men workers in educational attainment at the high school and college levels. A higher proportion of the women (79.8 percent) than of the men (75.2 percent) had completed at least high school, but 37.7 percent of the men compared with 34.3 percent of the women had some college education. (The proportion of women workers with some college education was only 27.1 percent in March 1973.) A somewhat smaller proportion of women workers than of men workers were in the lowest educational group in 1981; about 6 percent of the women and 9 percent of the men had completed 8 years or less of school.

Black women—There has been a significant closing of the gap between the educational attainment of white and minority women workers that is due to rapid gains among the black women. The median educational attainment for each of these groups is shown on chart IV-2.

The median educational attainment of black women workers rose between March 1973 and March 1981 from 12.2 to 12.5 years of school completed compared with the median for white women of 12.5 years in 1973 and 12.7 years in 1981. The gap of 0.2 years that now exists between black and white women workers is down from 1.8 years in 1962, an achievement that was made in less than one generation.

The narrowing of the educational gap between black and white women workers reflects two major occurrences: the continued decline in the number of black women with only 8 or fewer years of school completed (11 percent in March 1973 compared with 6.2 percent in March 1981); and continued increases in the proportion of black women workers who complete high school and in the proportion with 1 or more years of college (59 percent in 1973 compared with 70 percent in 1981).

Hispanic women—The median years of school completed by Hispanic women workers in March 1981 was 12.2 years, compared with 12.6 years for white women and 12.5 years for black women (see table IV-6). The Hispanic women were concentrated at the low end of the range of educational attainment for all women workers. Twenty percent had 8 years or less of schooling, compared with less than 3 percent for white women. Only

Table IV-5

Years of school completed by the U.S. labor force, by sex, March 1973 and March 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Years of school completed	Total, 16 years old and over	Labor force					Not in the labor force
		Total		Employed	Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of population	Number	Number	Percent of labor force	
March 1981							
Women							
Total	89,259	46,414	52.0	42,885	3,529	7.6	42,844
Elementary: Less than 8 years[1]	6,602	1,349	20.4	1,204	146	10.8	5,252
8 years	5,945	1,400	23.6	1,210	191	13.6	4,544
High school: 1 to 3 years	16,193	6,597	40.7	5,610	987	15.0	9,596
4 years	38,047	21,112	58.6	19,556	1,556	7.4	14,935
College: 1 to 3 years	13,966	8,656	62.0	8,226	429	5.0	5,310
4 years or more	10,507	7,301	69.5	7,080	221	3.1	3,206
Median school years completed	12.4	12.7	—	12.7	12.3	—	12.1
Men							
Total	80,193	61,306	76.4	56,349	4,958	8.1	18,887
Elementary: Less than 8 years[1]	6,169	2,945	47.7	2,607	338	11.5	3,224
8 years	5,333	2,827	53.0	2,505	323	11.4	2,506
High school: 1 to 3 years	14,596	9,446	64.7	7,975	1,472	15.6	5,149
4 years	27,200	22,982	84.5	20,966	2,017	8.8	4,217
College: 1 to 3 years	13,029	10,647	81.7	10,096	551	5.2	2,383
4 years or more	13,867	12,459	89.8	12,200	259	2.1	1,379
Median school years completed	12.5	12.7	—	12.7	12.2	—	11.2
March 1973							
Women							
Total	76,810	33,905	44.1	31,924	1,981	5.8	42,905
Elementary: Less than 8 years[1]	7,474	1,631	21.8	1,510	121	7.4	5,843
8 years	7,269	1,928	26.5	1,807	121	6.3	5,341
High school: 1 to 3 years	16,207	6,295	38.8	5,685	610	9.7	9,912
4 years	29,864	15,309	51.3	14,492	817	5.3	14,555
College: 1 to 3 years	9,352	4,688	50.1	4,485	203	4.3	4,664
4 years or more	6,644	4,054	61.0	3,945	109	2.7	2,590
Median school years completed	12.2	12.5	—	12.5	12.2	—	12.0
Men							
Total	68,371	53,420	78.1	50,890	2,530	4.7	14,951
Elementary: Less than 8 years[1]	7,348	4,134	56.3	3,934	200	4.8	3,214
8 years	6,696	4,162	62.2	3,875	287	6.9	2,534
High school: 1 to 3 years	13,972	9,939	71.2	9,106	833	8.4	4,033
4 years	21,632	19,137	88.5	18,374	763	4.0	2,495
College: 1 to 3 years	9,546	7,734	81.0	7,434	300	3.9	1,812
4 years or more	9,177	8,314	90.6	8,167	147	1.8	863
Median school years completed	12.3	12.4	—	12.5	11.8	—	10.3

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

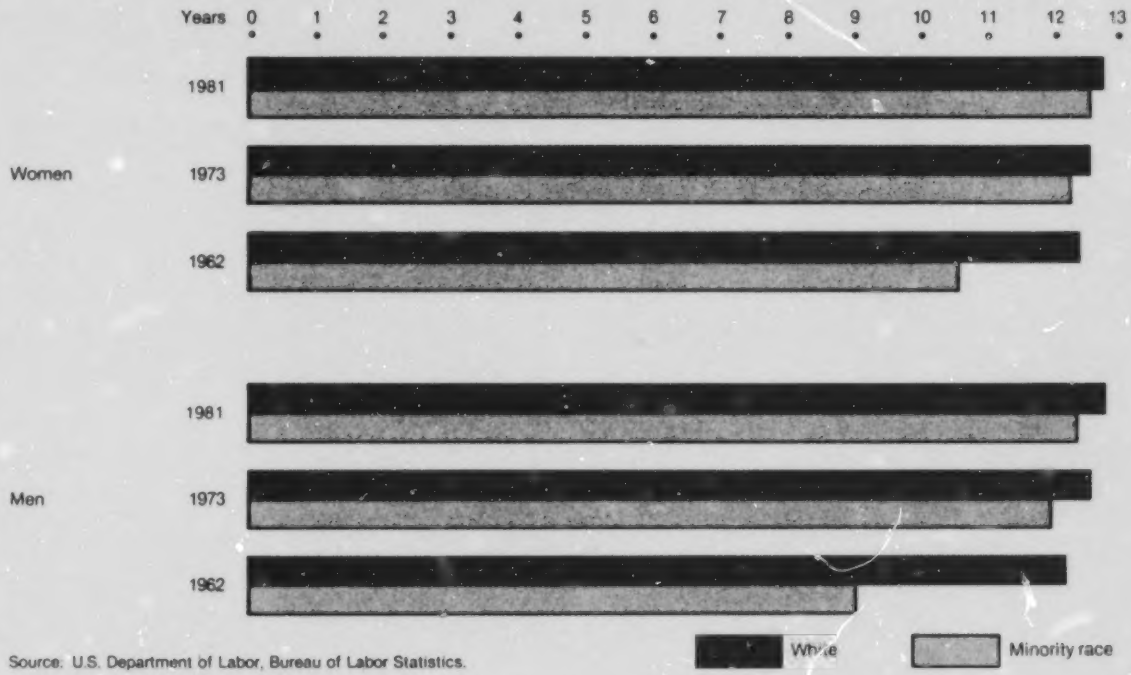
Source: *Educational Attainment of Workers*, Special Labor Force Report 161, March 1973; Unpublished 1981 data, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

about 59 percent had completed high school (including those with some college or college graduates), about 11 percentage points less than the proportion for black women and 22 percentage points less than the proportion for white women. About 7 percent of the Hispanic women had completed 4 or more years of college, less than half the proportion for white women workers and over two-thirds of the proportion for black women.

Chart IV-2.

The difference in the educational attainment of white and minority race workers is narrowing.

Median years of school completed, by sex and race, March 1962, 1973, and 1981.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Educational Attainment and Labor Force Participation

Women are largely responsible for the generally rising trend between 1973 and 1981 in labor force participation among persons with some college education. While participation rates for women with some college education rose sharply over the 1973–81 period, they were up only slightly for men with 1 to 3 years of college and were down slightly for men with 4 or more years of college.

As shown in the following tabulation, the labor force participation rate of women, with 1 or more years of college rose over 10 percentage points between 1973 and 1981, to about 65 percent in 1981. The rate for men with some college education edged up only two-tenths of a percentage point over the same period, reaching 86 percent.

Since 1973, labor force participation rates for persons with at least some college education have increased while the rates of persons with less than a high school education have declined, as shown in table IV–6. In March 1981, 55 percent of women high school graduates who had not gone to college were in the labor force. For women with 1 to 3 years of high school, the labor force participation rate was 62 percent. For women who had completed 8 years of school, labor force participation was 23.5 percent.

	Participation rate	
	1981	1973
Women		
College, 1 or more years	65.2	54.7
1 to 3 years	62.0	50.1
4 years or more	69.5	61.0
Men		
College, 1 or more years	85.9	85.7
1 to 3 years	81.7	81.0
4 years or more	89.6	90.6

Education and the Occupational Distribution of Women

The amount of education a woman has received greatly affects the kind of job she can obtain (chart IV–3). For example, 60 percent of the women employed in professional and technical occupations in March 1981 had completed 4 years or more of college. More than half of the women who work in private households completed fewer than 12 years of school.

Table IV-6

Employment status of women, by educational attainment and race, March 1973 and March 1981

(Numbers in thousands)

Years of school completed		Total, 16 years old and over	Labor force					Not in the labor force
			Total		Employed	Unemployed		
			Number	Percent of population	Number	Number	Percent of labor force	
		March 1981						
All women								
Total		89,259	46,414	52.0	42,885	3,529	7.6	42,844
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	6,602	1,349	20.4	1,204	146	10.8	5,252
	8 years	5,945	1,400	23.6	1,210	191	13.6	4,544
High school:	1 to 3 years	16,193	659	40.7	5,610	987	15.0	9,596
	4 years	38,047	21,112	58.6	19,556	1,556	7.4	14,935
College:	1 to 3 years	13,966	8,656	62.0	8,226	429	5.0	5,310
	4 years or more	10,507	7,301	69.5	7,080	221	3.1	3,206
Median school years completed		12.4	12.7	—	12.7	12.3	—	12.1
White								
Total		77,217	39,975	51.8	37,370	2,605	6.5	37,242
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	4,891	948	19.4	832	117	12.3	3,963
	8 years	5,299	1,204	22.7	1,047	151	13.0	4,095
High school:	1 to 3 years	13,237	5,384	40.7	4,694	684	12.8	7,853
	4 years	32,115	18,496	57.6	17,340	1,155	6.2	13,619
College:	1 to 3 years	12,257	7,492	61.1	7,182	310	4.1	4,766
	4 years or more	9,419	6,452	68.5	6,274	178	2.8	2,966
Median school years completed		12.5	12.7	—	12.7	12.3	—	12.2
Black								
Total		10,039	5,346	53.2	4,507	839	15.7	4,694
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	1,408	332	23.6	306	25	7.5	1,077
	8 years	565	170	30.0	140	30	17.6	396
High school:	1 to 3 years	2,692	1,102	40.9	819	283	25.7	1,590
	4 years	3,302	2,224	67.4	1,855	369	16.6	1,077
College:	1 to 3 years	1,383	955	69.1	846	110	11.5	428
	4 years or more	689	562	81.6	541	21	3.7	127
Median school years completed		12.1	12.5	—	12.5	12.2	—	10.7
Hispanic[2]								
Total		4,607	2,187	47.5	1,940	248	11.3	2,420
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	1,228	387	31.5	329	59	15.2	840
	8 years	373	139	37.2	107	32	22.9	254
High school:	1 to 3 years	1,013	373	36.8	307	66	17.8	640
	4 years	1,296	806	62.2	785	71	8.8	490
College:	1 to 3 years	478	330	69.1	316	14	4.2	148
	4 years or more	220	152	69.1	145	6	4.1	68
Median school years completed		11.0	12.2	—	12.3	10.5	—	9.6
		March 1973						
All women								
Total		76,810	33,905	44.1	31,924	1,981	5.8	42,905
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	7,474	1,631	21.8	1,510	121	7.4	5,843
	8 years	7,269	1,928	26.5	1,807	121	6.3	5,341
High school:	1 to 3 years	16,207	6,395	38.5	5,685	610	9.7	9,912
	4 years	29,864	15,309	51.3	14,492	817	5.3	14,555

Table IV-6—Continued

Employment status of women, by educational attainment and race, March 1973 and March 1981
(Numbers in thousands)

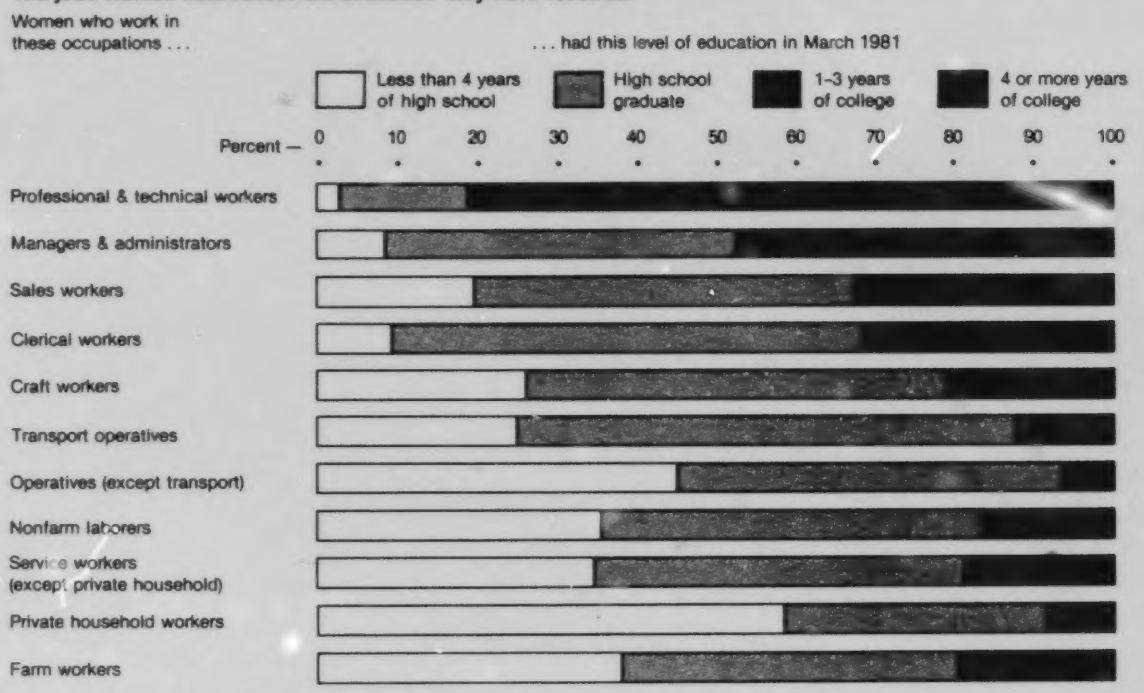
Years of school completed		Total 16 years old and over	Labor force					Not in the labor force
			Total		Employed	Unemployed		
			Number	Percent of population	Number	Number	Percent of labor force	
College:	1 to 3 years	9,352	4,688	50.1	4,485	203	4.3	4,664
	4 years or more	6,644	4,054	61.0	3,945	109	2.7	2,590
Median school years completed		12.2	12.5	—	12.5	12.2	—	12.0
White								
Total		67,753	29,476	43.5	27,948	1,527	5.1	38,277
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	5,770	1,141	19.8	1,052	88	7.7	4,629
	8 years	6,533	1,663	25.5	1,571	95	5.7	1,872
High school:	1 to 3 years	13,678	5,224	38.2	4,774	451	8.6	8,455
	4 years	27,208	13,678	50.3	13,033	642	4.7	13,530
College:	1 to 3 years	8,465	4,136	48.9	3,982	154	3.7	4,329
	4 years or more	6,097	3,634	59.6	3,536	99	2.7	2,462
Median school years completed		12.3	12.5	—	12.5	12.2	—	12.0
Black								
Total		9,056	4,432	48.9	3,976	454	10.2	4,628
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	1,700	490	28.8	457	33	6.7	1,214
	8 years	733	263	35.9	235	26	9.9	469
High School:	1 to 3 years	2,531	1,073	42.4	913	159	14.8	1,457
	4 years	2,656	1,632	61.4	1,458	175	10.7	1,025
College:	1 to 3 years	887	551	62.1	503	49	8.9	335
	4 years or more	547	423	77.3	410	10	2.9	125
Median school years completed		11.5	12.2	—	12.3	12.0	—	10.3
Hispanic[2]								
Total		3,198	1,263	39.5	1,157	106	9.2	1,935
Elementary:	Less than 8 years[1]	984	270	27.4	237	33	13.9	713
	8 years	344	118	34.3	104	14	13.5	226
High school:	1 to 3 years	732	246	33.6	222	24	10.8	486
	4 years	837	450	53.8	421	29	0.9	387
College:	1 to 3 years	213	119	55.9	114	5	4.4	94
	4 years or more	88	61	69.3	59	2	3.4	27
Median school years completed		10.1	12.0	—	12.0	9.9	—	9.2

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.
[2] Data tabulated without regard for age.
Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The relationship between the education women receive and their occupations also can be shown in the distribution, by educational attainment, of women employed in each occupation group. Of the 7.3 million women in professional and technical occupations in March 1981, 60 percent had earned a degree and nearly 82 percent had attended college. Of the 14.9 million clerical workers, over 31 percent had attended college; another 59 percent had only a high school diploma. About 8 percent of the clerical workers had 4 or more years of college. More than 20 percent of women white-collar workers of all kinds have had at least 1 to 3 years of college education. Women in private household work had the least schooling of women in any occupation group. Only 8.5 percent had attended college. The proportion of private household workers who had 1 to 3 years of high school was greater (58.5 percent) than the proportion who had completed high school (33 percent).

Chart IV-3.

The jobs women hold reflect the education they have received.


Women who work in these occupations . . .
. . . had this level of education in March 1981
Less than 4 years of high school
High school graduate
1–3 years of college
4 or more years of college
Percent — 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
Professional & technical workers
Managers & administrators
Sales workers
Clerical workers
Craft workers
Transport operatives
Operatives (except transport)
Nonfarm laborers
Service workers (except private household)
Private household workers
Farm workers

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Education and Unemployment

There is generally an inverse relationship between the amount of education workers have and unemployment: the fewer years of schooling they have, the higher their unemployment rate (table IV-5). In March 1981, 37.5 percent of all unemployed women had not graduated from high school, but only 18.7 percent of employed women lacked a high school diploma. This same trend was evident among male workers: men who lacked a high school diploma accounted for 43 percent of unemployed and 23.2 percent of employed men in March 1981.

There is an exception, however, to the inverse relationship that generally exists between years of education and unemployment. The highest unemployment rate among women workers in March 1981—15 percent—was for women with 1 to 3 years of high school, compared with a 10.8 percent unemployment rate for women with less than 8 years of school (table IV-8). This can be explained, in part, by the high proportion of teenagers who combine high school and part-time work. Women with less than 8 years of school completed were more likely to be older, and to have a stronger labor force attachment in lower paid, relatively stable occupations.

School Enrollments[5]

Declines in the Nation's birth rate in the past 15 years have affected enrollments in elementary and secondary schools. After peaking in 1970, enrollments steadily decreased and were almost 7 percent lower in 1978. Declines in enrollments between 1970 and 1978 were similar for females and males through the high school level.

At the college level, there have been increases in enrollments since the early 1970's. Most of the increases were the result of growth in college attendance by women. The increases were particularly great for women above the traditional age for college: women 25 years and over had the greatest increase in enrollments between 1970 and 1978 of any age group of women or of men. Enrollment in 2-year colleges accounted for about 67 percent of the total increase in enrollments by women in the first and second years of college. Women also gained in graduate

[5] Most of the information and data on women under 35 years of age in this section were derived from *School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1979*, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 360, April 1981, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Information from other sources is as noted in text.

Table IV-7

Persons in the labor force, by years of school completed, sex, race, and Hispanic origin,[1] March 1981

(Percent distribution)

Characteristic Total	Hispanic	White	Black
Both Sexes			
Total: Number (in thousands)	5,616	94,303	10,894
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years of high school	48.4	21.5	34.2
Elementary: 8 years or less	29.1	7.4	11.8
High school: 1 to 3 years	19.3	14.1	22.4
High school: 4 years or more	51.6	78.4	65.8
High school: 4 years	30.6	41.3	39.6
College: 1 to 3 years	13.4	18.0	16.9
4 years or more	7.6	19.1	9.3
Median school years completed	12.1	12.7	12.4
Women			
Total: Number (in thousands)	2,187	39,975	5,346
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years of high school	41.2	18.8	30.0
Elementary: 8 years or less	24.1	5.3	9.4
High school: 1 to 3 years	17.1	13.5	20.6
High school: 4 years or more	59.0	81.1	70.0
High school: 4 years	36.9	46.3	41.6
College: 1 to 3 years	15.1	18.7	17.9
4 years or more	7.0	16.1	10.5
Median school years completed	12.2	12.7	12.5
Men			
Total: Number (in thousands)	3,429	54,328	5,549
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years of high school	53.0	23.5	38.3
Elementary: 8 years or less	32.3	8.9	14.2
High school: 1 to 3 years	20.7	14.6	24.1
High school: 4 years or more	47.0	76.2	61.8
High school: 4 years	26.7	37.7	37.7
College: 1 to 3 years	12.3	17.5	16.0
4 years or more	8.0	21.0	8.1
Median school years completed	12.2	12.7	12.3

[1] Most persons in the United States of Hispanic origin are classified as white (about 96 percent), and the rest are classified as black. Their numbers are included in the appropriate comparative data shown for whites and blacks.

Source: "Educational Attainment of Workers," U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

school enrollments. In 1978 about the same number of women as men were in first-year graduate studies, and women were likely to be full-time students.

Age—Since 1973 the proportion of girls from 5 to 15 years old who are in school has edged upward. This trend continues in each succeeding age group as more young women stay in school, go to college, and enroll in graduate school.

Nearly all girls 7 to 13 years old were enrolled in school in 1980, and more than 97 percent of 14- and 15-year-old girls also were in school (table IV-9). As young women pass age 16 (the compulsory school attendance age in many States), the proportion who remain in school drops sharply for each older age group. Among women 16 and 17 years old, 89 percent were in school in 1980; among women 18 and 19 years old, 45.8 percent were in school;

nearly 29.5 percent of the women 20 and 21 years old were in school.

Sex—A smaller proportion of females than males from 3 to 34 years of age were enrolled in school in October 1979, 51.8 percent males and 49.0 percent females. The same relationship existed 10 years earlier, but the proportions by sex have been converging. In 1969, 60.5 percent males were enrolled and 53.6 percent females.[8]

Race/Ethnic Group—School enrollment rates in 1979 were about the same for girls and young women of various racial and ethnic groups for ages 5 to 17, but some differences were apparent after the high school years. Among women 18 and 19 years old, enrollment rates for those white and black were 48.2 and 45.1 percent, respectively; for Hispanic women, the rate was 38.8 percent. Hispanic women are less likely than white or black women to continue past the secondary school level, and their high school dropout rate is also somewhat higher than that of the other groups. A substantially smaller proportion of Hispanic women than of white or black women of ages 18 to 34 were in school in 1980.

Between 1973 and 1980 the school enrollment gap narrowed between black and white women 17 to 21 years old. In the 22 to 24-year-old group, the proportion of black women enrolled in school in 1980 was slightly larger than that of white women, probably because black women tend to be a little older than white women when they complete their schooling.

Table IV-8

Unemployment rates of women workers, by educational attainment and race, March 1973 and March 1981

Education and race	1981	1973
Less than 8 years[1]		
All women	10.8	7.4
White	12.3	7.7
Black	7.5	6.7
Hispanic	15.2	13.9
High school, 1 to 3 years		
All women	15.0	9.7
White	12.8	6.8
Black	25.7	13.3
Hispanic	17.8	10.8
College, 4 years or more		
All women	3.1	2.7
White	2.8	2.6
Black	3.7	2.8
Hispanic	4.1	3.4

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Type of School Enrollments

Of the 27.4 million girls and women of ages 3 to 34 who were in school in October 1980, there were 15.6 million (57 percent) in nursery school, kindergarten, or

[8] Digest of Education Statistics, 1981, National Center for Education Statistics.

Table IV-9

Females 3 to 34 years of age enrolled in school, by age, race, and Hispanic origin,[1] October 1980

(Numbers in thousands)

	Total		White		Black		Hispanic	
Age	Number	Percent of population	Number	Percent of population	Number	Percent of population	Number	Percent of population
3 and 4 years	1,078	35.5	855	34.6	191	39.7	72	26.6
5 and 6 years	2,882	96.4	2,345	96.4	453	96.7	259	94.9
7 to 9 years	4,769	99.2	3,897	99.2	744	99.3	441	99.0
10 to 13 years	6,872	99.4	5,675	99.4	1,043	99.3	571	99.9
14 and 15 years	3,580	97.7	2,962	97.8	539	97.4	294	92.1
16 and 17 years	3,509	88.8	2,913	88.4	525	90.4	235	82.2
18 and 19 years	1,910	45.8	1,582	45.1	279	48.2	111	38.8
20 and 21 years	1,235	29.5	1,064	30.2	135	23.7	51	17.6
22 to 24 years	912	14.9	766	14.8	112	13.9	52	12.6
25 to 29 years	833	8.8	719	8.9	87	7.4	44	6.9
30 to 34 years	613	7.0	530	7.0	66	6.5	21	4.1

[1] Data on persons of Hispanic origin are tabulated separately, without regard to race, which means that they are also included in the data for white and black persons. At the time of the 1970 census, about 96 percent of the Hispanic population was listed as white.

Source: *School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students, 1980*, Current Population Reports, P-20, No. 362, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table IV-10

College enrollment of persons 14 to 34 years old,[1] by type of college and year of enrollment, October 1973 and October 1979

(Numbers in thousands)

College and year of enrollment	Total		Total female		Total male	
	1979	1973	1979	1973	1979	1973
			All colleges[2]			
Total[2]	9,967	8,179	4,983	3,502	4,984	4,677
First year	2,874	2,282	1,540	1,333	1,334	1,205
Second year	2,291	1,807	1,172	787	1,119	1,020
Third year	1,653	1,476	766	625	888	851
Fourth year	1,458	1,230	702	515	756	715
Fifth year or higher	1,691	1,382	804	498	888	886
			2-year colleges			
Total	2,407	1,798	1,301	785	1,106	1,013
First year	1,298	929	741	452	557	477
Second year	925	743	466	285	459	458
Third year	184	126	94	48	91	78
			4-year institutions			
Total	5,606	6,160	2,736	2,610	2,871	3,551
First year	1,404	1,226	701	557	702	669
Second year	1,329	1,018	682	479	647	539
Third year	1,416	1,302	650	561	766	742
Fourth year	1,458	1,230	702	515	756	715
Fifth year or higher	1,691	1,384	804	498	888	886

[1] Civilian noninstitutional population.
[2] Includes enrollment not reported by type of college.
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

elementary school; 8.9 million (32.4 percent) in high school (grades 9–12); and 3.6 million (13.1 percent) in college.

School enrollments by women in 1980 were down from 1973 at the elementary level, unchanged at the high school level, and up by more than one-third in college. There were almost as many female students as male students at the elementary and secondary school levels, but there were 9 percent more men than women in college. The gap between college enrollments of women and men has narrowed considerably since 1973, when the number of men was about 33 percent higher than that of women.

Secondary school—Preliminary data from the National Center for Educational Statistics showed that in 1978–79, 1.5 million boys and 1.6 million girls graduated from high school. This relationship is long standing. In October 1979 the dropout rates were about the same, 13.3 for males, and 13.4 for females. In 1970, the rates were 16.2 and 17.7, respectively.[7]

College—It was in 1978 that the enrollment of women in institutions of higher education first equaled that of men. Up to that year, more men were enrolled.[7] Increasing numbers of women under 35 years of age have attended college since the early 1970's. In 1979 there were about 5 million women in this age group who were enrolled in college (table IV-10), up 42.3 percent from 1973.

Most of the women in college were first or second year students. Women have made tremendous strides in upper level college attendance in recent years, but they are outnumbered by men in upper level classes. Men enrolled

[7] Ibid.

Table IV-11

School enrollment and labor force status of 1979 high school graduates and labor force status of October 1978–79 school dropouts,[1] by sex and race

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic	Civilian noninstitutional population		Civilian labor force					Not in labor force
						Unemployed		
	Number	Percent	Number	As percent of population	Employed	Number	As percent of civilian labor force	
1979 high school graduates								
Total	3,160	100.0	2,048	64.8	1,741	307	15.0	1,112
White	2,773	87.8	1,848	66.6	1,607	241	13.0	925
Black	317	10.0	156	49.2	100	56	35.9	161
Hispanic origin[2]	154	4.9	104	67.5	86	18	17.3	50
Enrolled in college	1,559	49.3	660	42.3	582	78	11.8	899
Full-time	1,431	45.3	553	38.6	478	75	13.6	878
Part-time	128	4.0	107	83.6	104	2	1.9	21
Men enrolled in college	743	50.4	302	40.6	267	35	11.6	441
Women enrolled in college	816	48.4	358	43.9	315	43	12.0	458
1979 high school graduates not enrolled in college								
Total	1,601	100.0	1,388	86.7	1,159	229	16.5	213
Men	731	45.7	672	91.9	579	93	13.8	59
Women	870	54.3	716	82.3	580	136	19.0	154
Single	745	46.5	629	86.8	511	118	18.8	116
Married and other marital status[3]	125	7.8	87	69.6	69	18	20.7	38
White	1,397	87.3	1,235	88.4	1,602	173	14.0	162
Black	170	10.6	123	72.3	75	48	39.0	47
Hispanic origin[2]	85	5.3	69	81.2	58	11	15.9	16
1978–79 school dropouts								
Total[4]	794	100.0	523	65.9	387	136	26.0	271
Men	394	49.6	310	78.7	252	58	18.7	84
Women	400	50.4	213	53.2	135	78	36.6	187
Single	286	71.9	151	52.8	87	64	42.4	135
Married and other marital status[3]	112	28.1	60	53.6	47	13	21.7	52
White	622	78.3	426	68.5	328	98	23.0	196
Black	154	19.4	82	53.2	46	36	43.9	72
Hispanic origin[2]	71	8.9	47	66.2	38	9	19.1	24

[1] Ages 16 to 24 years old.

[2] Data on persons of Hispanic origin are tabulated separately, without regard to race, which means that they are all included in the data for white and black persons. At the time of the 1970 census, about 96 percent of the Hispanic population was listed as white.

[3] Includes widowed, divorced, and separated women.

[4] Persons aged 16 to 24 who dropped out of school between October 1978 and October 1979. In addition, 94,000 persons 14 and 15 years old dropped out of school.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Reports, *Students, Graduates, and Dropouts in the Labor Market, October 1979.*

in third year and higher college levels in 1979 outnumbered women by 12 percent, although the number of women enrolled in all years of college was about the same as the number of men.

Forty-nine percent of the 3.2 million persons who graduated from high school in 1979 were in college the following October (table IV-11). The proportion for women was 48 percent in 1979 compared with a high of 50 percent that was first reached in 1971 and was reached again in 1976 (table IV-12). The proportion for men was 50 percent in 1979, down from the peak of 63 percent in 1968.

Race/ethnic group—Enrollment data for women by race/ethnic characteristics for 1978 showed over 41,000 American Indian/Alaskan Natives, representing an increase of over 9 percent since 1976; 109,000 Asian/Pacific Island women, an increase of 22 percent in 2 years; 601,000 black women, up 7 percent; 205,000 Hispanic women, up 18 percent since 1976; and 4.6 million non-Hispanic white women enrollees, up 7.5 percent.

Table IV-12

Proportion of high school graduates enrolled in college in October of the year of graduation, by sex, 1962-79

Year of graduation	Percent enrolled in college		
	Total	Women	Men
1962	49	43	55
1963	45	39	52
1964	48	41	57
1965	51	45	57
1966	50	43	59
1967	52	47	58
1968	55	49	63
1969	54	47	60
1970	52	49	55
1971	53	50	58
1972	49	46	53
1973	47	43	50
1974	48	46	49
1975	51	49	53
1976	49	50	47
1977	51	49	52
1978	50	49	51
1979	49	48	50

Source: Special Labor Force Reports Nos. 155 and 168; Summary, Special Labor Force Report, April 1974, and annual update in Special Labor Force Reports Nos. 180, 191, 200, 215 and 223, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Enrollments of black and Hispanic women were greater than enrollments of men in those groups. Black women represented 57 percent of black enrollments and Hispanic women accounted for 53 percent of Hispanic enrollments.

Women Earning Degrees

Equality in higher education is an important means for women to achieve equal status in our society. While women were 50.9 percent of persons enrolled in postsecondary schools in 1979, they were 54.4 percent in 2-year institutions and 48.1 percent in 4-year institutions. Less than one-fourth of students in 2-year institutions (community colleges) complete 4 years of higher education.[8]

According to the data in tables IV-13 through IV-16, in 1978-79 women earned 617,316 degrees from the Nation's colleges and universities, including 444,110 bachelor's, 147,830 master's, 9,197 doctor's, and 16,179 first professional degrees in medicine, law, theology, and other professions.

In the past decade, women have made great strides in increasing both their numerical representation and their proportion of the degrees awarded at all four degree levels. Between the 1971-72 and 1978-79 school years, the number of women who were awarded degrees made these gains: their bachelor's degrees increased by over one-fifth; their master's degrees increased by nearly half; their doctor's degrees more than doubled; and there were over six times as many first professional degrees in 1978-79 as in 1971-72.

At both bachelor's and master's degree levels, women made major gains in fields where women traditionally have been poorly represented. At the same time, the number of women obtaining degrees in traditionally female fields remained virtually unchanged. At the doctoral level, the numerical increases of women awarded degrees were greatest in traditional female fields and were smallest in nontraditional fields.

Projections for the 1980's indicate that the number of women completing work at each degree level will continue to increase.

Fields of Study in Which Women Earned Degrees

Although women earn degrees in a broad and varied range of subjects, particularly at the bachelor's level, education remains their single largest field of study. In 1978-1979, 21 percent of the bachelor's degrees, more than half of the master's degrees, and more than two-fifths of the doctor's degrees earned by women were in education. These proportions increased at the master's and doctor's levels since 1971 but decreased at the bachelor's level.

Bachelor's degrees—Women received 48.2 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1978-79, up from 43.4 percent in 1971-72 (table IV-13). Of the 444,110 bachelor's degrees women received in the 1978-79 school year, nearly 92,232 were in education, down from about 132,000 in 1971-72. As a proportion of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women, education accounted for 20.8 percent in 1978-79 compared with 36 percent in 1971-72. The second largest field for women earning degrees in 1978-79 was the social sciences, in which women received nearly 45,395 degrees. This was about 10.2 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women in that school year, down from 16 percent in 1971-72.

Women made the greatest proportional gains between 1971-72 and 1978-79 in bachelor's degrees earned in fields where their representation has traditionally been small—business and management, agriculture and natural resources, computer and information sciences, and architecture and environmental design. There were decreases or little change in the percentage of degrees awarded to women in traditionally female fields, such as in home economics, library science, foreign languages, and the health professions.

Master's degrees—Women received 49.1 percent of all master's degrees in 1978-79, up from 40.1 percent in

[8] "Women in Higher Education: Trends in Enrollments and Degrees Earned," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 52, No. 2, 1982.

Table IV-13

Women's share of bachelor's degrees, awarded by discipline 1971-72 and 1978-79

Discipline	1978-79			1971-72		
	Total bachelor's degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning bachelor's degrees	Total bachelor's degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning bachelor's degrees
All disciplines	921,390	48.2	100.0	846,110	43.4	100.0
Agriculture and natural resources	23,134	27.1	1.4	12,710	4.2	0.1
Architecture and environmental design	9,273	25.8	0.5	5,578	12.0	0.2
Area studies	2,586	58.4	0.3	2,497	52.9	—
Biological sciences	48,846	40.2	4.4	36,033	29.3	2.9
Business and management	172,915	30.5	11.9	116,709	9.3	2.9
Communications	26,457	49.9	3.0	10,802	35.3	1.0
Computer and information sciences	8,719	28.1	0.6	2,388	13.6	—
Education	126,006	73.2	20.8	177,638	74.4	36.0
Engineering	62,375	8.3	1.2	50,357	0.8	0.1
Fine and applied arts	40,969	62.5	5.8	30,447	59.7	4.9
Foreign languages	11,825	75.9	2.0	20,433	74.8	4.2
Health professions	62,085	82.0	11.5	25,484	77.2	5.4
Home economics	18,300	95.1	3.9	11,271	97.3	3.0
Law	678	40.4	0.1	545	5.0	(*)
Letters	42,007	57.9	5.5	73,398	61.0	12.2
Library science	558	94.6	0.1	1,013	92.0	8.6
Mathematics	11,806	41.6	1.1	24,918	38.1	2.6
Military science	347	3.5	(*)	357	0.3	(*)
Physical sciences	23,207	22.5	1.2	21,549	14.0	0.8
Psychology	42,461	61.2	5.9	38,154	44.7	4.6
Public affairs and services	38,249	53.2	4.6	9,303	49.1	1.2
Social sciences	108,342	41.9	10.2	156,698	37.0	15.8
Theology	6,091	25.7	0.4	3,744	27.2	0.3
Interdisciplinary studies	34,154	49.9	3.8	14,084	29.2	1.1

*Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics, 1981*, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

1971-72 (table IV-14). The largest representations of women were clustered in these fields: home economics, where women earned 91.2 percent of the master's degrees; library science, 80.4 percent of the degrees; foreign languages, 69.5 percent of the degrees; health professions, 71 percent of the degrees; and education, 68.6 percent of the degrees.

The concentration in traditional fields for women was even greater at the master's level than at the bachelor's level. For example, 56 percent of all master's degrees earned by women were in education, while 25 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women were in this field. Employment opportunities were a factor in this increase. Many women who majored in another field as undergraduates may have sought a master's degree in education to qualify for high school teaching jobs.

With the exception of mathematics, women earned only a small percentage of the degrees that were awarded in nontraditional fields. In mathematics women made considerable progress toward equity in the degree awards, earning 34.6 percent of the degrees compared with 29 percent in 1971-72. However, women earned only 6.1 percent of the engineering degrees, 19.2 percent of the business and management degrees, 18.2 percent of the degrees in physical sciences, and 18.8 percent of the degrees in computer and information sciences.

Doctor's degrees.—Women received 28.1 percent of all doctor's degrees awarded in 1978-79 (table IV-15). The number of women receiving this degree doubled between 1971-72 and 1978-79.

Women predominated among doctoral recipients in three fields, all of them traditional areas for women: home economics (67.6 percent of the degrees); library science (51.4 percent); and foreign languages (53.8 percent). Only a small percentage of all doctorates awarded annually are in these fields. Degrees in these fields account for one-third of all doctorates awarded to women, about the same as the number of degrees awarded to women in education.

Table IV-14

Women's share of master's degrees, awarded by discipline 1971-72 and 1978-79

Discipline	1978-79			1971-72		
	Total master's degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning master's degrees	Total master's degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning master's degrees
All disciplines	301,079	49.1	100.0	231,486	40.1	100.0
Agriculture and natural resources	3,994	20.2	0.5	2,458	5.9	0.2
Architecture and environmental design	3,113	28.5	0.6	1,724	14.1	0.3
Area studies	773	49.0	0.3	1,017	39.0	0.4
Biological sciences	6,831	37.6	1.7	5,756	33.8	2.1
Business and management	50,506	19.2	6.6	26,654	3.9	1.1
Communications	2,882	48.5	0.9	1,856	34.6	0.7
Computer and information sciences	3,055	18.8	0.4	1,588	10.3	0.2
Education	11,536	68.6	51.8	89,067	52.2	53.8
Engineering	15,495	6.1	0.6	16,457	1.1	0.2
Fine and applied arts	8,524	53.9	3.1	6,678	47.4	3.4
Foreign languages	2,426	69.5	1.1	4,779	65.4	3.4
Health professions	15,485	71.0	7.4	5,902	55.4	3.5
Home economics	2,510	91.2	1.5	1,453	93.9	1.5
Law	1,647	15.5	0.1	955	4.8	(*)
Letters	8,891	61.2	3.7	12,743	57.5	7.9
Library science	5,906	80.4	3.2	7,028	81.3	6.1
Mathematics	3,036	34.6	0.7	5,201	29.3	1.6
Military science	38	—	—	2	—	—
Physical sciences	5,451	18.2	0.7	6,386	13.4	0.9
Psychology	8,003	54.1	2.9	4,438	37.2	1.8
Public affairs and services	19,946	50.6	6.8	8,406	48.8	4.4
Social sciences	12,887	35.3	3.2	16,522	28.3	5.1
Theology	3,558	32.0	0.8	2,710	24.4	0.7
Interdisciplinary studies	4,586	38.8	1.2	1,706	35.2	0.6

*Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics, 1981*, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

First professional degrees. Women received 23.5 percent of all first professional degrees in 1978-79 compared with almost 7 percent in 1971-72 (table IV-16). Most of these degrees in both years were in law—62 percent of the professional degrees awarded to women in 1978-79, up from 52 percent in 1971-72. The number of women receiving law degrees was 10,034 in 1978-79 compared with 1,289 in 1971-72.

Most of the other first professional degrees awarded to women in 1978-79 were in medicine. Women earned 23 percent of these degrees, up from 9 percent in 1971-72.

Degrees below the bachelor's level.—Women received 53 percent (153,836) of all associate degrees and other formal awards in occupational curriculums in 1978-79 (table IV-17). This was more than double the number of these awards that were made to women in 1970-71. Most of the degrees or awards to women were in health services, paramedical technologies, and business and commerce technologies.

Especially large increases have occurred in recent years in the number of awards and degrees earned by women in health services and paramedical technologies. There have also been large increases in the number of degrees and awards earned by women in natural science technologies, business and commerce technologies, and public service-related technologies.

Financial Assistance for Education

Financial aid for college students has become increasingly important as college costs continue to rise and as larger numbers of high school graduates from middle and lower income families seek to continue their education. Various forms of this assistance are available from institutions of higher education, Federal and State governments, and private groups and organizations. For example, many colleges have set aside funds to be used for financial aid to students, and a number of States have

Table IV-15

Women's share of doctor's degrees, awarded by discipline, 1971-72 and 1978-79

Discipline	1978-79			1971-72		
	Total doctor's degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning doctor's degrees	Total doctor's degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning doctor's degrees
All disciplines	32,730	28.1	100.0	32,113	14.3	100.0
Agriculture and natural resources	950	7.7	0.8	1,086	2.9	(*)
Architecture and environmental design	96	22.9	0.2	36	8.3	(*)
Area studies	133	36.1	0.5	149	17.4	(*)
Biological sciences	3,542	25.6	9.9	3,645	16.3	13.0
Business and management	863	11.7	1.1	810	2.8	(*)
Communications	192	28.1	0.6	145	13.1	(*)
Computer and information sciences	236	12.7	0.3	128	2.3	(*)
Education	7,731	42.2	35.5	6,398	21.2	29.6
Engineering	2,506	3.3	0.9	3,638	0.6	(*)
Fine and applied arts	700	35.1	2.7	621	22.2	3.0
Foreign languages	641	53.8	3.8	781	38.0	6.4
Health professions	718	36.8	2.9	466	16.5	1.7
Home economics	219	67.6	1.6	123	61.0	1.6
Law	46	15.2	0.1	20	0.0	0.0
Letters	1,924	40.8	8.5	2,416	23.5	12.4
Library science	70	51.4	0.4	39	28.2	(*)
Mathematics	730	16.7	1.3	1,199	7.8	2.0
Physical sciences	3,102	11.3	3.8	4,391	5.6	5.3
Psychology	2,662	40.0	11.6	1,782	24.0	9.3
Public affairs and services	368	30.2	1.2	178	24.2	(*)
Social sciences	3,360	25.8	9.4	3,659	13.9	11.0
Theology	1,232	4.6	0.6	312	1.9	(*)
Interdisciplinary studies	709	28.9	2.2	91	15.4	(*)

*Less than 0.05 percent.
Source: *Digest of Education Statistics*, 1981, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

scholarship and loan programs. Parent-teacher associations, community scholarship funds, employers, unions, churches, civic and fraternal groups, and professional organizations also have financial assistance for college students.

Federal Programs[1]

An estimated $2.5 billion in financial aid was awarded in fiscal year 1980 in Federal programs administered by the U.S. Department of Education. These programs provide aid both for college and university students and for students in vocational, business, or technical schools. Persons seeking detailed information about these programs should inquire at the school where they are applying or where they are enrolled. Information on some of these programs is also available in a pamphlet, *The Student Guide—Five Federal Financial Aid Programs*, published by the U.S. Department of Education.

These five programs, described below, are authorized by title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended. *Grants* are awards of money which do not have to be paid back. *Loans* are borrowed money which must be repaid with interest.

Pell Grants.—These grants provide financial aid directly to undergraduate students, based on a national needs analysis system which considers family size, the ability of the student's family to contribute to educational costs, and other factors. Grants are made to eligible students attending approved colleges and universities, and vocational, business, and technical schools. Pell Grants are entitlements and can be used at any approved postsecondary school.

Campus Based Aid Programs.—In this category of student financial aid are three programs: supplemental educational opportunity grants (SEOGS); college work-study; and national direct student loans.

[1] The programs described in this section were in effect for the 1982-83 school year. However, new policies may alter some of the aid programs or their provisions for ensuing years.

Table IV-16

Women's share of first professional degrees, by field of study, 1971-72 and 1978-79

Discipline	1978-1979			1971-72		
	Total first professional degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning first professional degrees	Total first professional degrees awarded	Percent of degrees awarded to women	Percent of women earning first professional degrees
Total	68,848	23.5	100.0	38,276	6.4	100.0
Chiropractic (D.C.)	1,779	10.6	1.2	—	—	—
Dentistry (D.D.S. or D.M.D.)	5,534	11.8	4.0	3,777	1.2	1.8
Law, general (L.L.B. or J.D.)	35,206	28.5	61.9	17,652	7.3	52.2
Medicine (M.D.)	14,786	23.0	21.0	8,986	9.2	33.4
Optometry (O.D.)	1,046	13.0	0.8	531	2.4	0.5
Osteopathic medicine (D.O.)	1,065	15.7	1.0	472	2.3	0.4
Pharmacy (D. Pharm.)	639	36.0	1.4	—	—	—
Podiatry or podiatric medicine (Pod. D.)	572	7.2	0.3	240	2.1	0.2
Theological professions, general	6,607	13.1	5.3	5,055	2.3	4.8
Veterinary medicine (D.V.M.)	1,714	28.9	3.1	1,252	7.8	4.0
Other	—	—	—	311	21.2	2.7

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics, 1981*, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Table IV-17

Associate degrees and other formal awards conferred below the baccalaureate level, by sex and curriculum, 1970-71 and 1978-79

Curriculum category and division	Women		Men	
	1978-79	1970-71[1]	1978-79	1970-71[1]
Total, all curriculums	153,836	116,883	128,425	155,979
Arts and science or general programs	78,632	64,317	69,984	84,452
Occupational curriculums	75,204	52,566	58,441	71,527
Science/engineering-related	35,379	26,090	30,428	42,123
Date processing technologies	2,540	2,408	3,308	5,156
Health services/paramedical technologies	28,626	21,915	4,118	2,455
Mechanical/engineering technologies	1,506	411	18,871	29,761
Natural science technologies	2,707	1,356	4,131	4,751
Nonscience/nonengineering-related	39,825	26,476	28,013	29,404
Business and commerce technologies	32,001	21,504	20,862	22,067
Public service-related technologies	7,824	4,972	7,151	7,337

[1] Does not include those below the technical or semiprofessional level.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

- Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants—This program was scheduled for phase-out in FY 1983. Funds are allocated to participating schools, which in turn make the grants based on need. Students eligible for these grants also may receive other kinds of financial aid, such as student loans and wages in college work-study programs. In addition, the Department of Education allocates funds which participating States match, for State student incentive grants. These grants are awarded based on need, as determined by each State.
- College Work-Study Program—Students who need financial aid may be employed through this federally supported program to earn part of their education expenses. They work while school is in session and also may work during vacations. Eligible postsecondary institutions select the students to be employed, define the jobs to be performed, supervise

the work, and pay the students. In general, salaries are at or above the minimum wage.

- National Direct Student Loans—These are low interest (3 percent) loans to help pay for education after high school. These loans are made through the school's financial aid office.

Guaranteed Student Loans and PLUS Program.—Through this program, loans are made by private lenders to students and their parents at low interest rates to help finance the cost of postsecondary education or training at universities, colleges, and vocational schools. Over 17,000 banks and other lenders and over 8,000 postsecondary institutions participate in the program. The interest rates were set at 9 percent on January 1, 1981. The Federal Government provides several forms of support for this program, including interest subsidies, insurance, and reinsurance payments for student and parent loans. In addition, the Federal Government is liable for costs associated with defaults, death, disability and bankruptcy. State and private nonprofit guarantee agencies participate as administrators by serving as intermediate loan insurers and default collectors, and providing other services.

Health Education Assistance Loan (HEAL).—These loans are authorized by the Health Professions Educational Assistance Act of 1976 (P.L. 94–484). Federally insured health education assistance loans are made by private lenders to full-time students pursuing one of the following degrees at a participating school: Doctor of Medicine, Doctor of Osteopathy, Doctor of Dentistry, Doctor of Veterinary Medicine, Doctor of Optometry, Doctor of Podiatry, Graduate or equivalent degree in Public Health, Bachelor or Master of Science in Pharmacy, Chiropractic, Clinical Psychology, or Health Administration. Students apply directly to accredited institutions in these fields, then loan applications are certified by the school and the application is sent to private lenders. There is no needs test, and the loan cannot exceed education costs.

Social Security Benefits

Section 202(d) of the Social Security Act authorizes educational benefits for unmarried full-time students between ages 18 and 22 whose parent (or, under certain conditions, grandparent) worked long enough under social security and has retired, become disabled, or died. The Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act of 1981 phases out this program in April 1985. Until then, to be eligible for benefits, students must have received children's benefits under social security in August 1981; must have been enrolled in a postsecondary school by May 1982; and must be 18.

Equity in Education

Although public schools in the United States have been coeducational for more than a century, the structures, behaviors, and policies that limit the opportunities and aspirations of girls and women still occur in the educational system—from preschool to graduate school, in vocational education, and in nonformal adult education programs. Some school counselors have discouraged girls and women from considering courses and careers in nontraditional fields, particularly in mathematics, science, and vocational education.

During the 1970's, women's groups developed legislative strategies to end sexism in education, and through education, to open economic opportunities to women. The result was the enactment of three laws that seek to achieve these goals. The U.S. Department of Education administers these laws, which are: Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (P.L. 92–318); the Women's Educational Equity Act of the Education Amendments of 1974 (P.L. 93–380); and the Vocational Education Act as amended by the Education Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94–482).

Title IX

Title IX promotes educational equity for women and girls in all federally assisted education programs, including elementary and secondary school, college and university, and vocational education programs. The law applies to all types of education, including athletic programs, counseling, facilities, and extra curricular activities.

Compliance with the law has been favorable. Women constitute a majority of undergraduate students, largely due to their enrollments in community colleges, and are earning increasing proportions of degrees at every level. The most significant increases have occurred in the enrollment of women in graduate and professional schools such as law and medicine. At the secondary level, sex-segregated physical education classes are rapidly disappearing. Prior to passage of title IX, 7 percent of participants in interscholastic high school sports were female. By 1981, a five-fold increase had occurred, and between 1971 and 1981 the number of female athletes increased by 527 percent.[19]

With respect to employment, women were 13 percent of principals in 1974 and only 14 percent in 1978. In

[19] Title IX: *The Half Full, Half Empty Glass*, National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, Fall, 1981.

1981, women were still less than 1 percent of the approximately 16,000 district superintendents. The number of women heading colleges and universities increased by 48 percent between 1975 and 1980, from 148 to 219. The proportion of women faculty members is increasing except at the full professor level. However, women continue to lag behind their male counterparts in salaries and tenure at every level.

Women's Educational Equity Act

The Women's Educational Equity Act was enacted in 1974, and amended in 1978 to promote educational equity for women and girls at all educational levels. The program provides grants and contracts to public agencies and institutions and private and nonprofit organizations to develop materials and model programs to achieve educational equity for girls and women of various racial, ethnic, age, regional, and socioeconomic groups.

In addition, the act also established a Presidentially appointed National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs which makes policy recommendations to the Federal Government on educational equity for women and girls. The Council is under the U.S. Department of Education, and its mandate addresses all Federal policies and programs affecting women's education.

Since 1975 the Council has completed a number of studies and activities in specific equity-related topic areas: the educational needs of rural women and girls; women's studies programs; education, training, and counseling needs of working women; the educational needs of black women; educational needs of American Indian women; sexual harassment on the campus; and the effectiveness of the Vocational Education Act in serving girls and women.

Vocational Education Act Amendments

The Vocational Education Act amendments enacted as the Education Amendments of 1976 mandate activities to eliminate sex bias, stereotyping, and discrimination in federally funded vocational education programs. They require each State to employ a full-time sex equity coordinator to ensure the elimination of bias and occupational segregation by sex in vocational programs. The act also calls for the development of a national vocational education data system, to include enrollments by sex and race; authorizes contracts and grants for research and for the development of model programs; permits States to use Federal funds for vocational programs for certain categories of adult women, such as displaced homemakers and part-time workers who want full-time jobs and women who seek nontraditional employment; and requires that Federal grants to States for consumer and homemaking education must be used to support programs and services that encourage participation of both males and females to prepare them for combining the homemaker and wage earner roles.

Among the priority targets in 1979, one designated need was for programs designed to attract women into nontraditional occupations. A project begun in 1978 to credential women's life experiences was carried over into 1979. Another project begun in 1978 to address the vocational needs of women offenders was carried over into 1980. In 1980 two projects were funded to facilitate employment of displaced homemakers and to develop a support service system for sex equity services in vocational education. In 1981 a project with the National Academy of Sciences (NAS), the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and the Employment and Training Administration in the Department of Labor was funded to focus on the issue of job segregation by sex. The NAS established the Committee on Women's Employment and Related Social Issues to carry out this project, and a two-day workshop was held in May 1982 to present and discuss research commissioned on job segregation by sex.

Career Education

Career education programs were originally mandated in the Education Amendments of 1974 (Section 406 of Public Law 93-380). Drawing on the experience under this initial legislation, Congress enacted the Career Education Incentive Act (Public Law 95-207), which took effect in fiscal year 1979. The act provided for the allotment of Federal funds to State departments of education on a population formula basis to assist in the development and implementation of career education in each State. In addition, discretionary funding was authorized for demonstration projects at elementary, secondary, and postsecondary school levels and for the dissemination of information about career education.

In the Reconciliation Act of 1981, title V of this program was consolidated into the Block Grants for Improving School Programs and its separate identity and authority expired. However, at least 15 percent of the funds distributed to local education agencies must be used for programs that develop and implement comprehensive career guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up services.

The purpose of career education is to help people, throughout their lives, to become aware of their interests and competencies as these develop and change; to examine career opportunities available in the world of work; and to find and use the means necessary to match their abilities with these opportunities. These efforts are to begin in the Nation's schools at the kindergarten level and are to continue through the postsecondary school years.

Of the 16,000 local school boards in the United States, 9,000 had initiated career education efforts by 1979, and 48 States had appointed career education coordinators, according to the American Institute for Research.

Federally Funded Employment and Training Programs

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA) was the keystone of Federal manpower training programs for a number of years. Some training programs were also mandated under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Social Security Amendments of 1967, and the Emergency Employment Act of 1971. The programs were administered by the U.S. Department of Labor as part of an overall national effort to meet employment and training needs and to fully utilize human resources. The emphasis was on training and supportive services to unemployed and disadvantaged persons, and to groups with special employment problems, such as youth, older persons, and members of minority groups.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

After more than a decade of centralized administration by the Federal Government, the bulk of the funds for employment and training programs was shifted by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA) to State, city, and county governments, which were designated as prime sponsors. CETA authorized State and local planning councils to use these funds to continue programs formerly administered by the Federal Government or to institute new programs and services as needed in their locality. Some funds were earmarked for discretionary use by the Federal Government for programs targeted at meeting the needs of certain groups.

The primary purpose of CETA was to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed persons to enable them to obtain self-sustaining, unsubsidized employment. As amended in 1978, CETA contained eight titles. Title I—Administrative Provisions--covered matters such as eligibility for prime sponsorships, wages and allowances, and reports to Congress. Title II—Comprehensive Employment and Training Service—listed employment and training services to be provided to the economically disadvantaged, such as classroom and on-the-job training, work experience, counseling, testing, and supportive services for the economically disadvantaged (Part B); a small upgrading program for persons working at less than their skill potential, and retraining for displaced workers (Part C); and public service employment for the disadvantaged (Part D). Title III authorized national programs for target groups facing particular disadvantages in the labor market. Title IV authorized youth programs, including: the Job Corps; Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects; Youth Community, Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP); the Youth Employment and Training Program (YETP); and the summer youth program. Title V authorized the National Commission for Employment Policy; while title VI authorized countercyclical public service employment for the temporarily unemployed. Title VII established the Private Sector Initiatives Program (PSIP); and title VIII authorized the Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC), a program administered by the Departments of Interior and Agriculture, serving 16-to-23-year-olds in year-round projects in areas such as tree nurseries, wildlife preservation, and recreation.

Representation of women in CETA—Eligibility data prepared for FY 1981 planning by CETA prime sponsors indicated that women were 57 percent of the 17 million persons eligible for any youth or adult CETA program.[11]

Program assignments in CETA—Data on in-program assignments of men and women as compared with their stated preference at entry were presented in a paper commissioned by the National Commission for Employment Policy[12] using FY 1976–78 interview data from the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey (CLMS). Alternatives for program assignment include classroom training, on-the-job training (OJT), adult work experience, public service employment (PSE), and direct referral to a job. In fiscal year 1978, women were 60 percent of the enrollees in classroom training, 36 percent of those in on-the-job training, 56 percent of those in adult work experience, 38 percent of those in public service employment, and 45 percent of those referred directly to jobs.

The Berryman paper concludes: "Preference data show that women are at least as likely as men to get the activity that they wanted at CETA entry. However, for those who wanted job training, females are much more likely to get classroom training than OJT. For those who wanted jobs, they were more likely to get adult work experience than PSE jobs."[13]

Occupational assignments in CETA—Berryman and others reviewed CLMS records on the type of occupation desired at CETA entry versus the occupational assignment received, using three categories: *Traditionally* male occupations (females less than 25 percent of that occupation's labor force); *mixed* occupations (females constitute 25 to 74 percent); and *traditionally female* occupations (females 75 percent or more). In fiscal year 1978,

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[11] Based on 1978 CPS data prepared by Malcolm Cohen for ETA.

[12] *CETA: Is It Equitable for Women?* Sue E. Berryman, Winston K. Chow, and Robert M. Bell, May 1, 1981.

[13] *Op. Cit., pp. 58–59, CETA: Is it Equitable for Women?*

11.7 percent of the adult females were assigned to institutional or OJT training, work experience, and public service jobs in the "traditionally male" category; 62.2 percent were assigned to jobs in the "traditionally female" category; and 26.1 percent were assigned to jobs in the "mixed" category, as compared with 69.7 percent, 10 percent, and 20.3 percent, respectively, for male enrollees.[14]

Among fiscal year 1978 enrollees, nearly 44 percent of the women who desired training and employment experiences in traditionally male occupations received them, while nearly 74 percent of those desiring traditionally female job training and experiences received them; and nearly 44 percent of those desiring "mixed job" experiences received them.[15] Among male enrollees 82.3 percent desiring traditionally male jobs received them; nearly 40 percent desiring traditionally female jobs received them; and 36.2 percent of those desiring mixed occupations received them.

In-CETA wages—Berryman and others analyzed wages earned by men and women in OJT, adult work experience, and PSE for fiscal years 1976–78, comparing men and women with the same educational attainment (still in high school, high school dropout, high school graduate, beyond high school-in school, and beyond high school-out of school). These data show that women earned 64 percent to 91 percent of what men with the same educational attainment earned in OJT programs in fiscal year 1978. Women earned between 86 and 97 percent of men's earnings while in adult work experience programs, and 87 percent to 107 percent of what men earned in PSE programs. Berryman and others report that the wage gap between men and women in CETA varied by census occupational category, with higher status occupations, such as professional and managerial, showing smaller hourly wage differences. Males had systematically higher hourly wages in sales, clerical, crafts, nontransport, operative, transport operative, nonfarm labor, and service occupations.

Post-program impact of CETA—Whether CETA contributed to occupational development, upward mobility, development of new careers, and overcoming sex stereotyping, including entry into traditionally male occupations, can be determined in part by examining the relationships between women's earnings and program participation. It has been estimated by Westat, Inc. that in 1977, the annual earnings of nonminority women in the fiscal year '76 cohort were, on the average, $500 higher than they would have been in the absence of the program. The annual earnings of minority women in this cohort were $600 higher as a result of participation in CETA.[16]

An alternative set of estimates from a joint study conducted by the Congressional Budget Office (CBO) and the National Commission for Employment Policy suggest an upper bound of CETA net impact for women of $1,300.[17] This study excludes PSE enrollees. However, together these two studies indicate a range of CETA net impact for women of $500 to $1,300 in annual earnings.

Women with little or no employment the year prior to entering CETA realized the largest gains in 1977 earnings after participating in the public service employment and work experience programs, both of which focus on employment experience. Women for whom lack of employment experience was not the primary problem, but who needed to upgrade their skills, realized their largest gains after participating in on-the-job training and classroom training.[18]

The Job Training Partnership Act

A new employment and training system was enacted October 13, 1982, to replace CETA. The Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 (JTPA) (Public Law 97-300) permanently authorizes job training and related assistance to economically disadvantaged individuals, dislocated workers, and others who face significant employment barriers. The ultimate goal of the act is to move trainees into permanent, self-sustaining employment.

Under JTPA, many responsibilities formerly carried out by the Federal Government will be transferred to State and local governments. Governors will have approval authority over locally developed plans and will be responsible for monitoring local program compliance with the act. JTPA also creates a new public/private partnership to plan and design training programs as well as to deliver training and other services.

JTPA becomes effective October 1, 1983. The five titles in the act are outlined below.

Title I—Job Training Partnership. Title I outlines the service delivery system. Each State Governor will designate service delivery areas (SDA's) within the State, based on proposals made by the State job training coordinating council. Local government units and voluntary consortia with populations of 200,000 and over will be designated service delivery areas upon request. In each SDA, local government units and the private industry council (PIC) will be equal partners in deciding on procedures for development of 2-year job training plans and

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[14] *Op. Cit.*, Table 9, "Adult Distribution Among Traditional Male, Traditional Female and Mixed CETA Jobs," page 31. Note: These are not standard Department of Labor definitions.

[15] *Op Cit.*, Berryman and others, Table 16, "Adults Who Got Desired Occupation," page 41.

[16] *Net Impact Report No. 1: Impact for 1977 Earnings of New FY 1976 CETA Enrollees in Selected Program Activities*, prepared for the Office of Program Evaluation, Employment and Training Administration, Department of Labor, by Westat, Inc., December 1980.

[17] *"CETA Training Programs—Do they Work for Adults?* a Joint CBO–NCEP Study, Howard Bloom and Maureen A. McLaughlin, July 1982.

[18] Unpublished technical note prepared by Westat, January 1982.

in choosing grant recipients and administrators for the plans. The PIC will provide policy guidance for and exercise oversight of the job training plan. Members of the private industry council will be appointed by local government officials from nominations offered by business and other specific interest organizations. A majority of members must represent business; the others will represent education, labor, rehabilitation agencies, community-based organizations, economic development agencies, and the Public Employment Service.

Performance standards mandated by the act will be based on increases in employment and earnings and on reduction of welfare dependency. Seventy percent of the funds available for each SDA must be spent on training. The act puts a cap of 15 percent on administrative costs, and a ceiling of 30 percent on administration, supportive services, allowances, and wages combined. However, under certain specified conditions, a waiver of the supportive services ceiling may be granted by the Governor. No funds may be used for public service employment except for Native American and migrant and seasonal farmworkers programs. The act prohibits discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, handicap, or political affiliation or belief; laws prohibiting discrimination in federally assisted programs are specifically applicable to the act.

Title II—Training Services for the Disadvantaged. Funds appropriated by Congress will be passed through the Secretary of Labor to State Governors according to a formula based on unemployment and the number of economically disadvantaged persons. The formula allocates one-third of the funds on the basis of substantial unemployment (at least 6.5 percent), one-third on excess unemployment (excess of 4.5 percent), and one-third on the number of economically disadvantaged persons in the State. Funds will then go to service delivery areas within the State by the same formula.

Under title II a broad range of training activities are authorized, including on-the-job and classroom training, work experience, remedial education, counseling, job development, and supportive services. Forty percent (percentage to be adjusted if necessary) of the funds must be spent on youth 16 through 21 years of age.

Ninety percent must be spent on the economically disadvantaged. Up to ten percent may be spent on those not disadvantaged if they have other employment barriers, such as those with limited English-language proficiency, displaced homemakers, school dropouts, teen parents, and older workers. Seventy-eight percent of the funds allocated to each State must be distributed to the service delivery areas. Eight percent of the State funds are allocated to joint education projects, 3 percent to programs for older workers, and 6 percent to incentive grants for programs exceeding performance standards or serving hard-to-serve individuals. Summer youth programs are authorized separately under title II.

Title III—Employment and Training Assistance for Dislocated Workers. This is a new State-administered program to provide training and other employment services to dislocated workers (those laid off due to plant closings, the long-term unemployed, and those who are unable to return to the same industry or occupation). States must match the Federal funds, but the matching requirement is reduced if the State has higher than average unemployment.

Title IV—Federally Administered Programs. This title extends and strengthens the Job Corps program, reauthorizes the programs for Native Americans and migrant and seasonal farmworkers, and establishes a new program for veterans. Also authorized on the national level are multi-State programs, pilot projects, research and demonstration, evaluation, and labor market information programs. Under multi-State programs the act includes programs for women, single parents, displaced homemakers, and older workers. The National Commission for Employment Policy is reconstituted as a nongovernmental commission.

Title V—Miscellaneous Provisions. This title amends the Wagner-Peyser Act to require the Employment Service to coordinate its activities with local job training programs. It also amends part C of title IV of the Social Security Act (the WIN program) to remove discriminatory language and to provide for coordination with JTPA service delivery area programs. It requires that participants in JTPA programs not be violators of the Military Selective Service Act.

Apprenticeship Training Programs

Apprenticeship is one of the oldest methods of organized skill training in many countries, and it is still one of the most effective. The U.S. Department of Labor is actively working to increase the number of women in nontraditional apprenticeable occupations because these occupations generally offer higher pay than traditional female occupations such as clerical work or retail sales. The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT) in the Department is responsible for the development of labor standards to safeguard the welfare of apprentices, bringing employers and labor together to set up apprenticeship programs, and providing equal employment opportunities in apprenticeship.

Effective June 12, 1978, the Department's regulations concerning equal employment opportunity in apprenticeship and training programs were amended to require affirmative action for women.[19] The regulations affect apprenticeship programs registered by BAT and State apprenticeship programs registered with recognized

[19] Federal Register, May 12, 1978, Vol. 43, No. 93, pp. 20760-72.

State apprenticeship agencies. Sponsors of apprenticeship programs who are underutilizing women and minorities in the crafts represented by their program must now adopt affirmative action plans with percentage goals and timetables for the admission of applicants from these groups. The goal for apprenticeship is to be set at a rate which is not less than 50 percent of the proportion of women in the work force of the sponsor's labor market area.

Historically, women have had limited participation in apprenticeship programs. Of 11 million skilled blue-collar workers in 1976, only about a half million (545,038) were women. Nearly 165,000 of these women were bakers, tailors, upholsterers and decorators, and window dressers. They constituted, respectively, 37, 32, 29, and 71 percent of the total employment in these occupations. On the other hand, the proportion of women carpenters, electricians, painters, plumbers, machinists, mechanics, stationary engineers, and a few other skilled and apprenticeable trades ranged from less than 1 percent to about 3 percent of employment in these specific fields.

In June 1977, women were apprenticed in about 200 of the 450 occupations recognized as apprenticeable by the Department of Labor. In the 53 trades in which 95 percent of all apprentices are employed, there were 4,819 women apprentices (2 percent of registered apprentices). By December 1979, a year and a half after the new apprenticeship regulations became effective, the percentage of women apprentices rose to 3.5 percent, with women making up 4.7 percent of entry-level apprentices. The number of women apprentices slightly more than doubled from 4,819 women in 1977 to 10,500 women in 1979. By July 1982, the number of women apprentices reached 18,326, or 6.1 percent of all registered apprentices. Women were in 426 of the 732 occupations recognized as apprenticeable by the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.

Outreach Projects.—Since the 1960's the Department of Labor has funded outreach programs designed to recruit women into apprenticeship. By 1978 the concept of nontraditional job development for women had been incorporated into all apprenticeship outreach programs. At their peak, special apprenticeship outreach programs for women were funded in as many as 23 cities. However, most of these special projects no longer received Federal funds by 1982. Some of the most successful projects are described below:

- Women in Apprenticeship[20]—This early research and demonstration effort in Wisconsin contributed to a knowledge of barriers to women seeking apprenticeship opportunities. Such barriers as attitudes, procedures of government agencies and educational institutions, and legal and regulatory restrictions were identified, and recommendations were made on how to minimize the barriers.
- Recruitment and Training Program, Inc. (RTP)—Originally this project was aimed at recruiting blacks into the construction trades. In 1974 a pilot program targeting women was begun. In each of the RTP offices a staff member was assigned exclusively to the recruitment of women into skilled trades jobs. By 1981 the number of offices serving women had increased to 35.
- Better Jobs for Women—Initiated in 1971 under the leadership of the Denver Metropolitan YWCA, this effective project was developed with assistance from the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training and the Women's Bureau. The project focused its efforts on women who maintain families and sought to place them in nontraditional jobs through counseling, work orientation, physical fitness training, job placement, and followup services.
- Advocates for Women—Now called Women in Apprenticeship, Inc., this successful program was originally funded by the Department of Labor in 1974. Serving nine counties in the San Francisco Bay area, its aim is to place women in apprenticeship jobs, chiefly in the construction trades. The program provides counseling, tutoring, job and vocational training, and referral and placement services.
- LEAP Apprenticeship Outreach Program for Women.—Project LEAP (Labor Education Advancement Program for Women) was funded by the Department of Labor, since 1974, and was administered by the National Urban League. The program operated in 15 cities in conjunction with LEAP projects that were already providing outreach for minorities. Women were placed as asbestos workers, bricklayers, carpenters, cement masons, drywall tapers, electricians, ironworkers, laborers, pipe trades workers, roofers, sheet metal workers, tilesetters, and welders.

Programs in Prisons—Since 1978, significant developments have occurred in training opportunities made available to women in both Federal and State prisons. In the four Federal institutions that house women and in at least 18[21] State prisons where women are incarcerated,

[20] This project is summarized in *Women in Apprenticeship—Why Not?* Norma Briggs, Manpower Research Monograph No. 33, 1974, U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. The project's final report (with the same title) by Charles Nye and Patricia Mapp is available from the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA 22151.

[21] As of August 1982, at least 18 State prisons which house women had begun the process needed to start an apprenticeship program. The States with programs either operational or in the development stage are: California, Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

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training is offered—or programs are being developed—in a number of apprenticeable nontraditional skilled trades. The developments stemmed from the dual concern of the Women's Bureau to increase the number of women in apprenticeable occupations as well as to improve the training and employment opportunities of women offenders and ex-offenders.

In late 1977 an informal committee of representatives from the national offices of the Women's Bureau, the Federal Bureau of Prisons (now the Federal Prison System), and the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training began work to open apprenticeship opportunities to female residents in Federal correctional institutions. As a result of that effort, registered apprenticeship training programs have been established at the all-female Federal Corrections Institution at Alderson, West Virginia, and women have been admitted to existing apprenticeship programs in the three Federal facilities that house both women and men—Pleasanton, California (became co-correctional in early 1980), Lexington, Kentucky, and Fort Worth, Texas, where apprenticeship programs were already in place but women had not had access to training that was nontraditional. The programs have been training women in occupations such as electrician, firefighter, welder, sewing machine mechanic, auto mechanic, plumber, painter, powerhouse operator, carpenter, and stationary engineer, as well as in traditional occupations such as cosmetologist and dental technician.

The second phase of the women offender initiative was to expand the concept of apprenticeship and nontraditional job training to State prisons, where the majority of women offenders are incarcerated. To aid this process, a consultation was held at Alderson in March 1980 to demonstrate to State corrections officials—commissioners, wardens, superintendents, and educational and training directors—how the program worked at Alderson and how it could be adapted to State facilities. In addition, the Women's Bureau developed a model, based on the Federal prison program, which provides guidance for implementing similar apprenticeship programs for women.[11]

Women in Apprenticeship Training Initiative—This national initiative was designed to increase the participation of women in apprenticeship training programs through raising awareness about women's ability to perform such jobs and their interest in and need for jobs that pay good wages. A second objective was to facilitate the development of information, advocacy, and support groups for women in each city in which the training took place. Regional training coordinators were funded to conduct training for employers, unions, educators, apprenticeship agency staff, community-based organizations, and women's groups in about 45 cities across the country in 1982.

Demonstration Projects

Many training and employment programs do not sufficiently address the special needs of women. To explore various approaches toward meeting those needs, the Women's Bureau, with limited funding and resources from the Labor Department's Employment and Training Administration, began in fiscal year 1978 to directly fund research and development projects focusing on the training and employment needs of women.[12] The projects were designed also to increase the Bureau's base of knowledge about women's training and employment needs and to demonstrate better techniques in outreach to them. The impact of the projects, which were mostly small efforts, was expected to be enhanced by written reports and models which the Bureau would distribute to encourage replication.

The majority of these projects were developed to provide job skills training and employment services to meet the needs of particular target groups of women. Others were designed to obtain more information about particular employment needs or to provide information to women at the community level about already existing programs and resources. A few of these projects are described below as examples of the kinds of programs that were developed.

Skills Training: Nontraditional—The Nontraditional Occupations (NTO) project was designed as a jobs skill training program. The goal was to increase the participation of young low-income women (16–19 years of age) in a broad range of nontraditional training or jobs by assisting them to acquire the knowledge, skills, and confidence to:

- Enroll in school-based education in science, math, vocational-technical skills, and related academic areas.
- Enroll in CETA-sponsored training including skill programs and on-the-job training.
- Enter and succeed in a wide variety of entry level blue-collar, male intensive jobs which offer the opportunity for upward job mobility.

The project served 18- and 19-year-old female high school dropouts from selected areas of Boston by adapting the techniques of the successful Nontraditional Occupations Project developed and implemented during 1976 and 1977 by the Boston YWCA for low-income adult women. Forty-six young women participated in the NTO program. Of these, 60 percent were black and 40 percent were white; 40 percent had completed the 11th

[11] *The Women Offender Apprenticeship Program: From Inmate to Skilled Craft Worker*, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

[12] *Women's Bureau Outreach Projects, 1978–1980*, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

grade of high school; 20 percent stayed in school through the 8th grade; 97 percent were single, and one-third had children. Most had very little work experience, but examination of the work histories showed experience to be exclusively in traditional women's occupations.

The curriculum of this demonstration project integrated hands-on nontraditional skill instruction in both classroom and actual work settings, skill-building exercises in the physical demands of nontraditional occupations, and career development activities leading to educational and/or job placement.

Hands-on skill instruction gave young women 320 hours of experience in basic electricity, construction, carpentry, painting/papering/plastering, and optional exposure in plumbing, heating/ventilation/air conditioning, and welding. A variety of carefully supervised projects were developed to permit young women to apply classroom skills to actual work settings. Occupational fitness utilized specifically designed exercises and games to teach young women how to develop body strength and stamina as well as techniques for lifting, pushing, pulling, carrying, and climbing. Career development counseling provided up-to-date, nonsexist information about the world of work; preparation for finding a job or an educational/training opportunity; help in using and building on newly-acquired skills; and strategies for dealing effectively with career-related constraints.

Followup of participants showed that 74 percent completed the program; post-project jobs were overwhelmingly nontraditional; the average salary was substantially higher after the program in comparison with the average of the most recent job held. After 5 months, 25 members of the group (75 percent) were still employed. Jobs held by participants included painter, carpenter, telephone repairer, youth counselor, and welder (trainee).

Adolescent Mothers.—The Solo Parents or Teen Mothers initiatives were developed by the Office of Youth Programs in the Employment and Training Administration and the Women's Bureau in response to the rising incidence of adolescent pregnancy and the large number of teen mothers who drop out of school and thus lack job skills. The Women's Bureau awarded over $1.5 million to research and demonstration projects in six U.S. cities to explore alternative approaches for improving the employability of adolescent mothers. Approximately 500 CETA eligible mothers 14 to 19 years of age were served in the projects by the end of fiscal year 1981. Community-based organizations and public school systems were awarded contracts to operate the program models. The demonstration grants were for 12 months, including service delivery, start-up, and phase down activities.

The demonstration projects provided a range of services. All programs included an educational and training component, with emphasis on nontraditional areas of work, and provided child care and parenting skills training. Some provided tutorial services.

The goals of the Solo Parents or Teen Mothers demonstration projects were to:

- Provide comprehensive services which address specific employment needs of adolescent mothers;
- Provide employment incentives which help deter future adolescent pregnancies; and
- Provide planning which will stimulate self-initiated exploration that encourages the adolescent mother to broaden her occupational horizon.

The adolescent mothers demonstration project initiative was the first Department of Labor effort to impact on the growing problem of teenage pregnancy by providing a guidepost for developing employment programs for teen mothers. Specifically, the program was expected to have an impact on community-based organizations (CBO's) by providing models for replication. The school system could expand the vocational education service for adolescent mothers with specific emphasis on nontraditional jobs, and prime sponsors could provide models that link education and employment for teen mothers in the community. Additionally, these programs could provide the CETA community with information about how best to reach and assist the young teenage mother, the fastest growing poverty population.

School-To-Work Transition.—Teenage women face a changing labor market: changes in population, the introduction of new technology or business practices, and changes in the needs of the public constantly alter the economy and affect employment in all occupations. The school-to-work transition is of particular significance in the life of adolescent women who may be less aware of changes in occupation/job structure and/or career options. Moreover, they may be even less aware of the likelihood that they may spend as much as 35 years in the paid labor force despite subsequent marriage and children.

In response to the problems of youth employment, the Labor Department's Office of Youth Programs, Employment and Training Administration, funded 30 youth employment and training demonstration projects. In 1978 the Women's Bureau initiated and developed innovative strategies for five projects focusing on young women; the remaining programs included both young women and men. The Women's Bureau projects were located in five different geographic areas, both urban and rural, and included minority and nonminority girls in their junior or senior year of high school.

The objective of the demonstration models was to ease the employment difficulties young women experience when they transfer from school to workplace. The purpose was not only to deliver transition services, but also to explore the feasibility of utilizing community-based organizations to establish linkages between the schools,

public and private sectors of the community, and parents. All of the programs had a school-based component, an advisory council, parents' input, and two study control groups.

About 500 young women received direct service. The projects recruited female students into nontraditional vocational training clusters, and the schools involved have now established relevant courses. Many of the students received excellent evaluations from their employers and were to continue in their jobs in a full-time capacity after graduation. Because the projects were successful, there is growing community-based support for school-to-work transition programs. Funding for the projects terminated September 30, 1981. In 1982 the Women's Bureau provided funding to replicate a model curriculum developed by one of these school-to-work projects. The Women in Nontraditional Careers (WINC) program was designed to be easily integrated into almost any high school curriculum. The Women's Bureau funding was to provide information and technical assistance to school officials in implementing the curriculum in school systems in three regions.

Employment Services—The Low Income Women's Employment Model Project was a 3-year pilot funded in 1978 to provide assistance in becoming job ready and gaining work skills for primarily Hispanic low income women, especially heads of families, AFDC recipients, and agricultural and/or former migrant women. The project contacted low-income women in the San Antonio, Texas, area with special outreach information and recruitment efforts to acquaint them with the program and its purpose. The women were given pre-employment counseling, world-of-work orientation and other supportive training. Stipends were provided for incidental expenses and child care, and special efforts were made to provide for child care and transportation needs. Followup activities and participation in a support group encouraged job retention and helped the women to deal with common problems.

One interesting feature of this program was job development, in which "packages" of jobs were identified, and women were recruited to fill those jobs. The package might consist of several kinds of jobs with a single employer, or it might include only one kind of job, such as electrical worker, construction laborer or driver, with one or more employers.

Technical assistance guides for implementation of the various program components were developed by National Women's Employment and Education, Inc. for the Women's Bureau. These included handbooks for the program administrator, outreach counselors, job developers, employment counselors, employment readiness trainers, and participants.

Rural Women—As an outgrowth of its Low-Income Women's Project, the Women's Bureau funded several projects targeted to rural women.

The Appalachian Women's Employment Information Project offered employment information and referral services to women in the mountainous rural areas of three States—West Virginia, Virginia, and Kentucky. The primary control and direction for the projects was provided by the Appalachian women involved at each of the three sites. This feature addressed the need for decision-making involvement of the low-income women in organizations set up to assist them.

Four sites were served in seven counties in Kentucky, Virginia, and West Virginia. Each became a focal point in its community, bridging the gap between women of the community and local employers and service providers. Each project site had a local advisory committee of women, was incorporated, and had working relationships with unions. Schools and community colleges conducted skills training and formal classes for program participants.

Staff members made referrals and did job development and vocational counseling. They also provided assistance to "cut through the red tape" with other social service organizations to many of their clients and they exceeded their placement goals in training and employment. Women's Bureau funding of this project was completed in fiscal year 1981.

The Coal Employment Project, located in five Tennessee counties—Anderson, Campbell, Clairborne, Morgan and Scott—emerged from a study to determine the extent to which women were interested in coal mining and employers were willing to hire them. Based on the findings, the Coal Employment Project was funded (in part by the Women's Bureau), and developed an advocacy (Coal Mining Women's Support Team), training, and placement network which significantly increased the number of women coal miners. Advocacy was directed at opening opportunities for women throughout the coal mining industry through stimulating enforcement of equal employment opportunity and affirmative action laws and regulations.

Nineteen women completed the comprehensive training and received their new miners' certification. The training included 40 hours beyond the number required by Tennessee mining officials for certification. This enrichment program dealt with support information needed by women to survive in this new work environment. A training manual was developed on safety and health employment rights to meet the special needs of women entering the coal industry. The Coal Employment Project staff members worked closely with State vocational departments, mine owners, and the United Mine Workers.

Other Programs for Women

Other special projects included information gathering, conferences, and consultations to develop new programs. Many of these involved interagency efforts and

close cooperation with private sector employers and community-based organizations. The following are examples:

Displaced Homemakers.—A number of special projects were developed and funded through CETA in 1980–81 to provide counseling, training, jobseeking skills, and placement to displaced homemakers. The Women's Bureau funded the national Displaced Homemakers Network to provide technical assistance to 37 of these projects to ensure their success in providing essential services to these women. More than 4,000 women were served through the projects. The Network has developed models for a successful program with multiple funding sources and another program that taught displaced homemakers entrepreneurial and small business skills for operating home health care businesses.

Women Business Owners and Corporate Board Members.—The Women's Bureau initiative to develop training and other information assistance to women business owners and potential business owners was fostered by the Interagency Task Force on Women Business Owners. A report by this *ad hoc* task force led to the President's Executive Order 12138 in May 1979 creating a permanent committee—the Interagency Committee on Women's Business Enterprise—and a national women's business enterprise policy of action to assist women business owners.

The Women's Business Enterprise Division, located in the Small Business Administration, was established in March 1980. The Division is charged with overseeing implementation of the Executive order in cooperation with the Interagency Committee, and administering a national program to develop women's business enterprise.

Executive Order 12138 directed each department and agency of the executive branch to:

- Take appropriate affirmative action to facilitate, preserve, and strengthen women's business enterprise.
- Require recipients of Federal financial assistance to take appropriate affirmative action to facilitate, preserve, and strengthen women's business enterprise.

The order further directed the Interagency Committee on Women's Business Enterprise to promote, coordinate, and monitor implementation of the Executive order; design a comprehensive and innovative plan for a joint Federal-private sector effort to develop women's business enterprise; report annually on the Federal response to the order; and make recommendations as needed.

The Corporate Board Women's initiative was developed by the Women's Bureau to profile women and the corporations on whose boards of directors they serve, and to determine their impact on corporate programs for women employees. The project identified corporate board women in for-profit corporations. The profile research focused on a broad range of women directors on both public and private boards and on variables which could be developed from publiciy accessible sources rather than from survey data.

Small conferences with women who were board members of corporations or who held upper-management positions in large corporations were held in five regions to encourage these women to share their information and experiences.

These conferences served as a resource for developing practical ideas about how women in decision making positions in the private sector can have a positive influence on the status of women employed in their corporations.

Child Care.—A national child care initiative was begun in 1982 which built on previous Women's Bureau work in this area. The objective is to promote employer-sponsored child care systems in the private sector by encouraging employers to take advantage of tax incentives and other benefits associated with the availability of child care to employees.

Minority Women.—A number of special efforts to reach minority women to help them identify employment and training needs and to learn how to take advantage of government programs and local resources have been undertaken. Conferences have been sponsored with Hispanic women and other minority women: several projects have focused on black women; training workshops on Federal employment have been conducted with American Indian women; and a series of six conferences were held with Asian and Pacific American women in six cities across the country.

Other Projects.—Other projects included a study of women's employment networks to learn more about how they are formed, how they operate and change, and the functions they serve; a program to provide leadership training to union staff women to facilitate their advancement and to find out more about female membership in unions; and a small study on undocumented women workers.

Part 2

Laws Relating to Women's Employment and Status

HIGHLIGHTS

Sex Discrimination in Employment

Forty-two States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws which prohibit discrimination in private employment based on sex. The basic Federal fair employment practice law is title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits employers, labor organizations, and employment agencies from discriminating on the basis of race, color, religion, and national origin as well as sex. Title VII was amended in 1978 to make discrimination on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions clearly unlawful sex discrimination.

Executive Order 11246, as amended by Executive Order 11375, not only prohibits discrimination by Federal contractors on the same bases as stated in title VII, but also requires employers to commit themselves to affirmative action programs to assure equal opportunity. In 1978 the Department of Labor issued regulations governing affirmative action for employment of women in the construction industry and in apprenticeship programs.

Equal Pay

Thirty-seven States have equal pay provisions in their minimum wage laws or in separate statutes. An additional eight States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico prohibit pay discrimination based on sex in fair employment practices or civil rights laws. The Federal Equal Pay Act requires that women and men performing work in the same establishment and under similar conditions receive equal pay if their jobs require substantially equal skill, effort, and responsibility. Amendments in 1972 extended coverage to executive, administrative, and professional employees and outside sales personnel; 1974 amendments extended protection to most Federal, State, and local government employees.

Age Discrimination

Thirty-eight States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws prohibiting age discrimination in private employment. The Federal Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 was amended in 1978 to raise the upper limit from 65 to 70 years in private and State and local government employment, and now protects persons 40 to 70 years from age discrimination in employment. There is no upper limit in Federal Government employment.

Minimum Wage

Forty-one States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws with minimum rates currently in effect. Only one State now excludes men from coverage, in contrast with two decades ago when most of the 35 minimum wage laws did not apply to men.

The Federal minimum wage law—the Fair Labor Standards Act—was last amended in 1977. The amendments set minimum hourly wage increases for a 3-year period; the last step, at $3.35 an hour, was effective January 1, 1981. Most covered nonagricultural workers must be paid the minimum wage for the first 40 hours of work, and 1½ times their regular rates for additional hours.

Unemployment Insurance

The Unemployment Compensation Amendments of 1976 added a Federal standard that prohibits States from continuing to enforce any provision that denies unemployment compensation benefits *solely* on the basis of pregnancy or recency of pregnancy. The amendments also require State coverage of most State and local government employees and certain private household workers.

Sexual Harassment

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission issued guidelines on sexual harassment in November 1980. The guidelines reaffirmed the position that sexual harassment violates Section 703(a) of title VII, which prohibits discrimination against an individual in any terms or conditions of employment on the basis of that person's sex. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs in the Department of Labor included in its regulations effective May 1979 a provision requiring Federal construction contractors to ensure and maintain an environment free from harassment, intimidation, or coercion. OFCCP has proposed regulations to incorporate major sections of the EEOC guidelines, but no final determination has been made.

Social Security

In 1977, following a Supreme Court decision which held invalid a social security dependency test for widowers, Congress removed the dependency test for men, but provided that social security dependent and survivor benefits for wives, husbands, widows, and widowers be reduced by the amount of any Federal, State, or local government pensions they receive.

Federal Employment

Equal Employment Enforcement

Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978 transferred enforcement of Federal equal employment opportunity requirements from the Civil Service Commission to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Veterans' Preference

The effect of the 5-point preference given to veterans competing for Federal jobs was narrowed slightly by excluding those who enter military service after October 14, 1976, unless they serve in a war or campaign. In 1979 the U.S. Supreme Court upheld a Massachusetts statute granting absolute life preference to veterans in State civil service employment.

Civil Service Reform

Under the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, the Civil Service Commission was abolished and replaced with a Merit Systems Protection Board and an Office of Personnel Management.

Part-Time—Flexitime

In 1978 Congress enacted legislation to promote permanent part-time positions at all grade levels of Federal employment. After October 1, 1980, part-time employees were counted as fractions of full-time positions against agency personnel ceilings. In 1982 Congress enacted legislation to permit but not require Federal agencies to use flexible and compressed work schedules.

Chapter V
FEDERAL LABOR LAWS OF SPECIAL INTEREST TO WOMEN

There has been relatively little major Federal legislation affecting women's employment status and opportunities in the years since 1975, compared with the preceding decade when there was extensive legislative activity in areas related to women. Basic equal employment opportunity laws which address a wide range of unfair practices and discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, and mental or physical handicap have been firmly integrated into the matrix of employment legislation and government administrative practices. Amendments have broadened coverage, strengthened enforcement, and added new provisions to meet particular problems.

Enforcement efforts in recent years have concentrated on reaching systemic discrimination and industries with large numbers of affected employees. Agencies with overlapping administrative and enforcement responsibility have been required to coordinate their efforts, and there has been increased Federal-State cooperation in administering fair employment practices laws. Enforcement responsibilities have been concentrated in single agencies to improve compliance with the law. Also, considerable activity in the courts has tested and clarified a number of the newer laws and regulations, and has required change in other laws such as social security, which treated women and men differently.

Federal legislation on occupational safety and health and private pension plans, both issues of considerable importance to women, has been implemented by administrative agencies. Comprehensive standards have been developed and regulations promulgated to carry out the legislation in these two areas. In recent years more complex problems have been addressed, such as the valuation of jobs women hold and sexual harassment. These issues are being explored through research and agency guidelines, and are being tested in the courts.

This chapter covers Federal labor laws of interest to women. Laws relating specifically to Federal employment are covered in chapter VI. Data have been verified as of July 1, 1982, except where otherwise noted.

Fair Labor Standards Act

The Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA), generally known as the Federal wage and hour law, has made it possible to raise wage rates for persons in the lowest paid occupations and industries. Enacted in 1938, the law established a nationwide minimum wage standard for covered employment (individuals engaged in or producing goods for interstate commerce). The law also set Federal standards for overtime pay and the employment of children.

During the four decades since its enactment, the FLSA has been amended several times to increase the minimum wage rate and, generally, to expand the law's coverage and to provide for equal pay for equal work. The minimum wage established when the act went into effect was 25 cents an hour, and only about 11 million workers were covered. In September 1981, 61.3 million workers were covered by the act. The minimum wage, set by 1977 amendments, was $2.90 an hour beginning January 1, 1979. These amendments also set $3.10 an hour as the minimum wage beginning January 1, 1980, and $3.35 an hour beginning January 1, 1981. For overtime work, most covered workers now must be paid not less than one and a half times their *regular* rate for all hours worked in excess of 40 in any one workweek.

Increases in the minimum wage are important to women, who are heavily clustered in low-wage occupations. Also of particular interest to women are the following amendments to the FLSA:

- The Equal Pay Act of 1963 (this act, an amendment to the FLSA, is discussed later in this chapter);
- The extension, in 1974, of FLSA protection to private household workers whose compensation constitutes wages for social security purposes (that is, $50 from any employer in a calendar quarter) or who are employed a total of at least 8 hours a week in one or more households; and
- The establishment by the 1977 amendments (effective as of January 1, 1978) of $30 as the minimum

monthly amount that a worker must customarily and regularly receive in tips in order for an employer to consider tips as part of wages (beginning January 1, 1980, this so-called "tip credit" may not exceed 40 percent of the minimum wage); employees must retain all of their tips except to the extent that they participate in a valid tip pooling or sharing arrangement, and an employer who elects to use the tip credit provision must inform the employee in advance and be able to show that the employee receives at least the minimum wage when direct wages and the tip credit allowance are combined.

The FLSA does not limit the hours of work for employees who are 16 years old or older, and it does not require premium pay for weekend or holiday work or, generally, for daily overtime; a discharge notice or statement of the reasons for discharge; rest periods; or severance pay. Some of these subjects are treated by State laws (see chapter VII).

Under special certificates, certain workers—learners, apprentices, handicapped workers, and full-time students in retail or service establishments, agriculture, or institutions of higher education—may be paid less than the generally applicable minimum wage. Wage rates below the national minimum apply in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, but the 1977 FLSA amendments provide for higher periodic increases in these jurisdictions so that they will eventually conform to the national minimum rate.

The reasonable cost or fair value of board, lodging, and other facilities provided by an employer may be considered as part of wages under the FLSA.

Exemptions

Although the FLSA coverage is broad, several types of workers are exempt from both the minimum wage and the overtime provisions of the act. Some types of workers are covered by the minimum wage but are exempt from overtime requirements.

In terms of numbers of persons affected, one of the most important exemptions from both the minimum wage and overtime provisions of FLSA is that of individuals employed in a professional, executive, or administrative capacity, or as salespersons who work outside the employer's place of business. Many State and local government employees also are not covered by the FLSA minimum wage and overtime provisions. In 1966 amendments to the act, the Congress extended FLSA coverage to employees of State and municipal hospitals, institutions, and schools, and the 1974 amendments extended coverage to State and local government employees across the board. However, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in *National League of Cities v. Usery,* 426 U.S. 833 (1976), that the Congress does not have power under the commerce clause of the Constitution to make the FLSA applicable to State and local employees who are engaged in traditional government functions such as fire prevention, police protection, sanitation, public health, parks and recreation, schools, and hospitals. The wording of the Court decision, however, permits coverage of employees who carry out functions that are not traditional for State and local governments.[1]

Other exemptions from *both* minimum wage and overtime provisions include babysitters who are employed on a casual basis and persons who are employed as companions to the aged or infirm; farm workers working for an employer who did not use more than 500 person-days of farm labor in any calendar quarter of the preceding year; employees of certain seasonal amusement or recreational establishments; and employees of certain individually owned and operated small retail or service establishments that are not part of a covered enterprise. The 1977 amendments somewhat expanded the annual volume test for exemption of retail or service establishments. Effective July 1, 1978, such businesses were exempt if their gross annual volume of sales or business was less than $275,000; effective July 1, 1980, if less than $325,000; and effective January 1, 1982, if less than $362,500. Enterprises that cease to be covered as a result of this dollar volume test must continue to pay their employees at least the minimum wage that was in effect at the time of removal from coverage, plus compensation for overtime in accordance with the act.

Exemptions from overtime provisions *only* include live-in private household workers, agricultural workers, and certain transportation workers whose industries are subject to regulation under other Federal laws.

Enforcement

The Wage and Hour Division of the Employment Standards Administration in the U.S. Department of Labor enforces the FLSA with respect to private employment, covered State and local government employment, and Federal employees of the Library of Congress, U.S. Postal Service Rate Commission, and the Tennessee Valley Authority. (The Office of Personnel Management is responsible for enforcement with regard to other Federal employees.) Wage and Hour Division representatives have the authority to enter places of employment that are subject to the act and to inspect records, question employees, and investigate conditions and practices as

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[1] The following functions of a State or its political subdivisions have been determined to be subject to the FLSA: alcoholic beverage stores; off-track betting corporations; local mass transit systems; generation and distribution of electric power; provision of residential and commercial telephone and telegraphic communications; production and sale of organic fertilizer as a by-product of sewage processing; production, cultivation, growing, or harvesting of agricultural commodities for sale to consumers; and repair and maintenance of boats and marine engines for the general public.

deemed necessary in order to determine whether a violation has occurred or to aid in enforcement.

Complaints to the Division's field offices are treated confidentially. It is unlawful to discharge or otherwise discriminate against an employee for filing a complaint or participating in a proceeding under the FLSA. Violators of the act may be subject to civil or criminal action.

Equal Pay Act

The first Federal law against sex discrimination in employment was the Equal Pay Act (EPA) of 1963. Earlier, several States had enacted equal pay laws, and some Federal agencies had applied the principle of equal pay for women and men during World Wars I and II.

The EPA prohibits pay discrimination because of sex. Women and men performing work in the same establishment and under similar conditions must receive the same pay if their jobs require substantially equal skill, effort, and responsibility. The act does permit differentials based on a seniority or merit system, a system measuring earnings by quantity or quality of production, or any factor other than sex.

Employers subject to the EPA also are prohibited from reducing the wage rate of any employee in order to equalize pay between the sexes. In addition, it is illegal for a labor organization or its agents to cause or attempt to cause an employer to violate the act.

The act became effective June 11, 1964. As an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act, it applies to all employees covered by minimum wage provisions of the FLSA. Major breakthroughs occurred in 1972, when EPA coverage (but not minimum wage and overtime) was extended to executive, administrative, and professional employees and outside sales personnel, and in 1974, when FLSA coverage was extended to most Federal,[2] State, and local government employees.[3]

When enacted in 1963, the EPA affected 30 million workers. As a result of extensions in equal pay coverage and growth in the U.S. economy, which have resulted in a larger labor force, there are now approximately 80 million workers covered by the law.

Under the President's Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission assumed enforcement responsibility for the EPA, effective July 1, 1979. Reorganization Plan No. 1 also transferred enforcement responsibility of this act for Federal Government employment from the U.S. Civil Service Commission to EEOC, effective January 1, 1979. The law previously was administered by the Department of Labor for the private sector and for State and local government employment. During the period of its responsibility for EPA enforcement, the Labor Department found approximately $173 million due in back wages for roughly 286,000 workers, most of them women. Employees also have won substantial amounts in awards for back wages through private suits. Even more significant than the recovery of back wages are the increases in current and future pay rates of the affected workers in these enforcement cases.

Litigation by the Department of Labor was also important in building a body of law which, once established, facilitates voluntary compliance. Among the legal principles established by litigation are the following:

- The "equal work" standard requires only that compared jobs be "substantially equal;" they need not be identical. Small differences in job content do not make jobs unequal.
- Once the Federal Government or a plaintiff in a private suit has shown that a wage differential exists between men and women doing substantially equal work, the burden falls on the employers to prove, if they can, that the differential is explained by some factor other than sex.
- Where some, but not all, members of one sex perform significant extra duties in their jobs, these extra duties do not justify giving all members of that sex a higher wage. Only those employees performing the extra duties are entitled to the higher wage.
- The fact that most men may be able to perform some heavy lifting or other duties that women are deemed unable to perform is in itself not of such economic value that it would be a "factor other than sex" which would justify a higher wage rate for males. In order to justify a higher rate for males, the employer must prove the alleged advantage in dollars and cents, and the extra duties must have been offered to women on the same terms as to men.
- An employer's classifications and job descriptions are totally irrelevant in showing that work is unequal unless they accurately reflect actual job content.
- "Working conditions," as used in the EPA and as understood in industrial parlance, does not refer to the time of the day during which work is performed. Where women were at one time excluded from night shifts because of prohibitions in State law, continuing to pay men on these shifts a higher base rate than is paid to women on these shifts (a so-called "red-circling" of the rate) is a violation of

[2] Military personnel are not subject to Equal Pay Act requirements.

[3] There have been challenges to the EPA extension to State and local governments based on the U.S. Supreme Court decision in *National League of Cities v. Usery* (see the FLSA section of this chapter). These challenges have been rejected by Federal courts, which have upheld the EPA provisions as proper under the commerce clause of the Constitution. The U.S. Supreme Court used the 14th amendment to the Constitution in upholding the application of title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to State and local governments (see the title VII section in this chapter).

the EPA. This violation can be cured only by raising the pay of the women to the same base pay received by the men.

- When men—but not women—do heavy lifting on an infrequent basis in a workplace, the men are not entitled to higher pay than women who perform virtually identical duties, because infrequent exertion does not involve substantially additional effort.
- Mental as well as physical effort must be taken into account in establishing equality of effort.
- The possession of skills not needed and not exercised by an employee in a particular job does not justify a pay differential for that employee.
- In the retail sales industry, there is no substantial difference in the responsibility that is required to manage soft-line departments such as clothing, which are usually managed by women, and the responsibility required to manage hard-line departments such as sporting goods, which are usually managed by men.
- Concurrent employment of the two sexes need not be established to make a comparison under the equal pay principle. For example, an employer cannot arbitrarily pay a lower wage to a female employee who replaces a male employee.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

A milestone in equal employment opportunity for women was reached with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VII of that law, effective July 2, 1965, prohibits discrimination based on sex as well as on race, color, religion, and national origin in all terms, conditions, or privileges of employment.

Title VII is administered by the bipartisan Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), whose five members are appointed by the President. Initially, the powers of EEOC were limited largely to investigation and conciliation, but in 1972 the law was amended to give the Commission litigation authority and to extend coverage. Educational institutions and State and local governments were brought under coverage at that time, and numerical exemptions (number of workers or members required for coverage) were lowered.[4] The 1972 amendment also extended coverage of title VII to Federal employment. Enforcement authority with regard to Federal employment originally was given to the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978 transferred this authority to EEOC, effective January 1, 1979.

The law now covers all public and private employers of 15 or more persons, public and private employment agencies, labor unions with 15 or more members, and joint labor-management committees with apprenticeship or other training programs. Indian tribes are exempt as employers. Religious educational institutions or associations are exempt with respect to the employment of persons of a particular religion, but are covered with respect to discrimination based on sex, race, color, or national origin. Federal employees are covered under a separate section of title VII (see chapter VI).

Under title VII, the following are unlawful employment practices:

- *For an employer* to discriminate in hiring or firing, wages and salaries, promotions, or in any terms, conditions, or privileges of employment because of an individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.
- *For a labor union* to discriminate in membership, the classification of members or applicants for membership, or in referrals for employment; or to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate on any of the prohibited bases.
- *For an employment agency* to discriminate in classifying or referring persons for employment on any of the prohibited bases.
- *For any employer, labor union, or joint labor-management committee* to discriminate on the prohibited bases in admission to or employment in any apprenticeship or other training or retraining program.

Exceptions are permitted when sex is a bona fide occupational qualification that is reasonably necessary to the normal operation of the business (as in the case of an actor or actress). Also, differentials in compensation based on seniority, merit, or an incentive system are permitted.

A charge of unlawful employment practice within the meaning of title VII may be made by any individual who claims to be aggrieved. Upon authorization from such person, a charge on behalf of the person may be filed by an agency, organization, or another person. Individuals or organizations may request the issuance of a charge by an EEOC commissioner for an inquiry into individual or systemic discrimination. When a charge is made on behalf of a person, identity of the individual may be withheld from disclosure except to government agencies. Charges must be in writing and may be made in person or by mail at any EEOC office or with any designated agency representative. A formal complaint form is available; however, the agency will accept any written statement that is sufficiently precise to identify the parties and generally describe the action or practices that gave rise to the complaint.

It is illegal for employers, employment agencies, and labor organizations to discriminate against any person

[4] The U.S. Supreme Court unanimously sustained the power of Congress, under the 14th amendment, to extend title VII to State and local governments. *Fitzpatrick v. Bitzer*, 427 U.S. 445 (1976).

because he or she has opposed a discriminatory employment practice or has made charges, testified, or participated in an action under title VII.

Where EEOC determines there is reasonable cause to believe that title VII has been violated, it attempts to eliminate the unlawful employment practice by informal methods of conference, conciliation, and persuasion. If the effort fails, EEOC may bring civil action against the respondent (or, in the case of a government or political subdivision, it may refer the matter to the U.S. Attorney General with a recommendation for civil action). If prompt judicial action is determined to be necessary, EEOC or the Attorney General may seek a court order for temporary or preliminary relief until a decision is made on the merits of the charge. Private individuals also may seek temporary or preliminary relief on their own motion.

Time Limit on Complaints

The time limit for the filing of a charge under title VII is 180 days from the alleged unlawful practice, with certain exceptions.

Title VII requires EEOC to allow a deferral period for States and localities with fair employment practices (FEP) laws covering the bases of discrimination contained in title VII (see Sex Discrimination section in chapter VI). When an alleged unlawful employment practice occurs in a jurisdiction with an effective FEP law and to which EEOC defers, EEOC must give the authorized State or local agency an opportunity to remedy the alleged discrimination before Federal action is taken.

If the State agency does not complete action on the complaint within 60 days, EEOC may proceed to process the charge. If the complaint is sent to the State agency first, the deadline for filing with EEOC is 300 days from the date of the unlawful act, or within 30 days of a notice that the State agency has finished its proceedings, whichever happens first. Some actions may be continuing violations of title VII, and are not then subject to the usual time limits.

Some discriminatory acts may be considered "continuing" violations and may be subject to a special determination as to final date of an allegedly unlawful practice. For example, in the case of a worker who is laid off and not recalled, the time limit for filing a charge may depend on whether the layoff and recall activities are regarded as discrete or as continuing activities. The denial of employment to a particular person does not "start the count" on the time limit for filing a charge if an employer or union thereafter maintains and supports a discriminatory hiring system.

The EEOC issues a notice to a complainant of her or his right to bring a civil action in these specific instances: when EEOC has been unable to obtain voluntary correction and has decided not to bring civil suit; when EEOC has entered into a conciliation agreement to which the person claiming to be aggrieved is not a party; and when EEOC has dismissed a charge. Such notices also are issued upon request when EEOC has had jurisdiction of a charge for 180 days, or if it determines before 180 days that it will be unable to complete its administrative processing of the charge within that time. Issuance of a right to sue notice does not preclude EEOC from offering assistance to a person receiving such a notice.

The Attorney General has authority to issue right to sue notices for charges against government respondents.

EEOC Sex Discrimination Guidelines

Because sex discrimination sometimes takes forms that are different from discrimination on other bases, EEOC has issued sex discrimination guidelines. The guidelines provide a narrow interpretation of what constitutes a bona fide occupational qualification. For example, the guidelines state that the refusal to hire an individual cannot be based on assumed employment characteristics of women in general and that preferences of customers or existing employees should not be the basis for refusing to hire an individual. The guidelines declare that it is an unlawful employment practice to classify a job as "male" or "female," or to maintain separate lines of progression or seniority systems. They also bar hiring based on the classification or labeling of "men's jobs" and "women's jobs" or advertising for workers under male and female headings.

In addition, the guidelines say that State laws which prohibit or limit the employment of women in certain occupations (in jobs requiring the lifting or carrying of weights over certain prescribed limits, or for work during certain hours of the night, for more than a specified number of hours per day or per week, and for certain periods of time before and after childbirth) discriminate on the basis of sex because such laws do not take into account the capacities, preferences, and abilities of individual women. Thus, these laws conflict with and are superseded by title VII. This position has been upheld in a series of court cases—the conflict between Federal and State laws on this point was largely resolved in the early 1970's.

Regarding State laws that require minimum wage and premium pay for overtime for women only, EEOC deems it an unlawful employment practice for an employer to refuse to hire women in order to avoid the payment of minimum wages or overtime pay required by State law, or in order not to provide the benefits for men. The agency takes a similar position in regard to other State employment laws that are oriented toward one sex, such as laws requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities for women. If an employer can prove that business necessity precludes providing these benefits

to both women and men, the employer must not provide them to members of only one sex. (See chapter VII, State Labor Laws of Special Interest to Women.)

The EEOC guidelines also declare that it is an unlawful employment practice for an employer to discriminate between men and women with regard to fringe benefits—such as medical, hospital, accident, life insurance, and retirement benefits; profit-sharing and bonus plans; and leave—and other terms, conditions, and privileges of employment. For example, it is unlawful for an employer to have a pension or retirement plan which establishes different optional or compulsory retirement ages based on sex, or which differentiates on the basis of sex as to the benefits themselves. The U.S. Supreme Court has upheld this guideline in a case involving a city agency that required female employees to make larger contributions to its pension fund than were made by male employees, *City of Los Angeles v. Manhart,* 435 U.S. 702 (1978). The city agency had based its practice on mortality tables and on its experience that female employees had greater longevity than male employees, resulting in a greater pension cost for the average female retiree than for the average male retiree. The Supreme Court ruled that title VII, which focuses on fairness to individuals rather than on fairness to classes of persons, precludes treating individuals simply as the components of a group. Thus, even though women as a class outlive men, this cannot justify disqualifying an individual to whom the longevity characteristics of a group may not apply.

Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978

Early versions of sex discrimination guidelines issued by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 did not specifically mention pregnancy disability. In issuing a 1972 revision of the guidelines, EEOC included a statement that disabilities caused or contributed to by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion, childbirth, and recovery were to be treated as other temporary non-job-related disabilities are treated with regard to such matters as leave, insurance, accrual of seniority, and reinstatement. A number of States adopted similar guidelines.

Federal district and appellate courts generally upheld this guideline. However, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in 1976 that a company's disability benefits plan does not violate title VII because of its failure to cover pregnancy-related disabilities, *General Electric Co. v. Gilbert et al.,* 429 U.S. 125 (1976). A year later, the Court ruled that title VII does not require a company to let an employee use her accrued sick leave for a leave of absence because of pregnancy disability, *Nashville Gas Co. v. Satty,* 434 U.S. 136 (1977). In *Satty* the Court also held that the employer's policy of denying accumulated seniority to female employees returning from pregnancy leave violated title VII by depriving these employees of employment opportunities and adversely affecting their status as employees.

To counteract the *Gilbert* decision, Congress amended title VII to clarify the fact that discrimination on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions clearly constitutes unlawful sex discrimination.

The Pregnancy Discrimination Act (Public Law 95-555, 92 Stat. 2076), enacted in October 1978, amended section 701 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 by adding the following new subsection:

> (k) The terms "because of sex" or "on the basis of sex" include, but are not limited to, because of or on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions; and women affected by pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions shall be treated the same for all employment-related purposes, including receipt of benefits under fringe benefit programs, as other persons not so affected but similar in their ability or inability to work, and nothing in section 703(h) of this title shall be interpreted to permit otherwise. This subsection shall not require an employer to pay for health insurance benefits for abortion, except where the life of the mother would be endangered if the fetus were carried to term, or except where medical complications have arisen from an abortion: Provided, that nothing herein shall preclude an employer from providing abortion benefits or otherwise affect bargaining agreements in regard to abortion.

The report issued by the conference committee stated:

> Because the conference substitute applies to all situations in which women are "affected by pregnancy, childbirth, and related medical conditions," its basic language covers decisions by women who chose to terminate their pregnancies. Thus, no employer may, for example, fire or refuse to hire a woman simply because she has exercised her right to have an abortion.
>
> The exclusion of abortion benefits from the conference substitute is intended to be limited to benefits for the abortion itself. If a woman suffers complications from an abortion, medical payments and disability or sick leave benefits for the treatment of the complications would be covered.

Except for a "grace period" that was provided for current fringe benefit programs or funds or insurance programs to come into compliance, the provisions of the new section were effective on the date of its enactment. Under the law, the following actions are illegal:

- To refuse to hire or promote pregnant women because they are pregnant;

- To terminate pregnant women because they are pregnant; or
- To arbitrarily establish mandatory leave for pregnant women which is not based on their inability to work.

On April 20, 1979, the EEOC reissued its sex discrimination guidelines with slight modifications. Accompanying the guidelines was an appendix of 37 questions and answers that were intended to respond to urgent concerns raised by employees, employers, unions, and insurers who had sought information on their rights and obligations under the act. On October 9, 1979, EEOC issued a clarification of its enforcement position with regard to alleged violations of the act in areas covered by two of the guideline questions. The law does not require an employer to provide a specific number of weeks for maternity leave, or to treat pregnant employees in any manner different from other employees with respect to hiring or promotions, or to establish new medical, leave, or other benefit programs where none currently exist. The basic principle of title VII reflected in the guidelines is that women affected by pregnancy and related conditions must be treated the same as other applicants on the basis of their ability or inability to work. A woman unable to work for pregnancy-related reasons is entitled to disability benefits or sick leave on the same basis as employees unable to work for other medical reasons.

Persons interested in the guidelines should request them and the later clarification from EEOC.

Contradictory appellate court rulings in 1982 leave in question an EEOC guideline which extends maternity benefits to wives of workers as well as female employees. The Fourth Circuit affirmed the rule while the Ninth Circuit found no discrimination in a company's exclusion of pregnancy-related coverage from insurance benefits for dependents. (*Newport News Shipbuilding Co. v. EEOC; CA 4,* No. 81-1283, June 22, 1982.) (*EEOC v. Lockheed Missiles & Space Company, Inc.; CA 9,* No. 81-4542, July 6, 1982.)

Sexual Harassment Guidelines

Under Federal law, sexual harassment is a discriminatory, and therefore unlawful, employment practice. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission published an amendment to its sex discrimination guidelines on November 10, 1980, to reaffirm its position that sexual harassment violates Section 703 (a) of title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended. Section 703 prohibits the imposition of an onerous condition of employment upon any individual because of that person's sex.

The guidelines define what constitutes sexual harassment in violation of title VII; state the manner in which EEOC will determine whether alleged conduct constitutes sexual harassment; apply general title VII principles that employers are responsible for their acts and those of their agents and supervisory employees with respect to sexual harassment; state the circumstances in which employers will be considered responsible for acts of sexual harassment in the workplace with respect to conduct between fellow employees and acts of nonemployees toward employees; suggest steps an employer should take to prevent sexual harassment; and state that employers may be held liable when qualified persons are denied an employment opportunity or benefit as a result of the granting of such opportunities and benefits to another person because of submission to the employer's sexual advances or requests for sexual favors.

The EEOC guidelines define sexual harassment as follows:

> Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when (1) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (2) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such an individual, or (3) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

The guidelines state that EEOC will determine the legality of a particular action on a case by case basis, looking at the record of alleged harassment as a whole, the circumstances, the nature of the sexual advances, and the context in which the alleged incidents occurred.

Other Major Guidelines

Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures were adopted in August 1978 by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, the Civil Service Commission (now Office of Personnel Management), the Department of Labor, and the Department of Justice.

The fundamental principle underlying the guidelines is that employer policies or practices which have an adverse impact on employment opportunities of any race, sex, or ethnic group are illegal under title VII and Executive Order 11246, as amended, unless justified by business necessity. A selection procedure which has no adverse impact generally does not violate title VII or the Executive order. This means that an employer may usually avoid the application of the guidelines by use of procedures which have no adverse impact. If adverse impact exists, it must be justified on the basis of business necessity. Normally this means by validation which demonstrates the relation between the selection procedure and performance on the job.

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Affirmative action guidelines were issued by EEOC in January 1979. It is the Commission's interpretation that appropriate voluntary affirmative action, or affirmative action pursuant to an administrative or judicial requirement, does not constitute unlawful discrimination in violation of title VII. An affirmative action plan or program under the guidelines must contain three elements: a reasonable self-analysis, a reasonable basis for concluding that action is appropriate, and reasonable action. The guidelines describe the circumstances under which voluntary affirmative action is appropriate and the kinds of analysis and action the Commission finds reasonable in an affirmative action plan.

The U.S. Supreme Court has also ruled that title VII, while not requiring preferential treatment of minorities in voluntary affirmative action employment programs, does not prohibit such treatment, *United Steelworkers of America v. Weber*, 443 U.S. 193 (1979).

In 1981, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the prohibition of sex-based wage discrimination in title VII of the Civil Rights Act is not limited to claims of equal pay for equal work, *County of Washington v. Gunther*, 452 U.S. 161 (1981). Most women workers are concentrated in relatively few occupations. Some who work in traditionally female jobs have filed complaints under title VII, charging that such work is undervalued and underpaid in comparison with other work—generally performed by men—different in content but seen to require the same or less educational preparation, experience, skill, and responsibility. For example, nurses have questioned their pay compared to that of city sanitarians, and clerical employees have claimed discrimination in comparing their wages to those of physical plant employees. This is a developing area of the law, and it is not yet clear what practices courts will rule amount to sex-based wage discrimination under title VII.

Federal Contracts

The Federal program prohibiting discrimination in employment in work done under Federal contracts or subcontracts or under federally assisted construction contracts is set forth in Executive Order 11246, as amended by Executive Order 11375, which became effective in 1968. The program stems from the responsibility of the executive branch of the Federal Government to establish the terms and conditions on which it will contract with private parties to purchase supplies and services needed for Government operations. Since the early 1940's, Presidents have issued Executive orders which use the Government's contracting power to further public policy on fair employment practices for minorities. Executive Order 11246, as amended, broadened this policy to include the present prohibited bases of discrimination.

Most Government contracts now must include language in which contractors pledge to take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are hired and treated during their employment without regard to their race, color, sex, religion, or national origin. Such action must include nondiscrimination in employment, upgrading, demotion, or transfer; in recruitment or recruitment advertising; in layoffs or terminations; in rates of pay or other forms of compensation; and in selection for training, including apprenticeships. Some contracts of $10,000 or less are exempt. However, where there is an accumulation of contracts of $10,000 or more in a year, the contractor is covered by the order.

The Secretary of Labor has overall enforcement authority for the order and has assigned administrative responsibilities to the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP).[8] For a number of years, the OFCCP delegated responsibility for compliance to various Federal agencies. Under the President's Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978, compliance functions that were formerly shared with other agencies were consolidated in the Department of Labor. Duplicative contract compliance offices in some cities were closed, allowing for the opening of OFCCP offices in many more locations.

In the compliance process, remedies are routinely obtained by OFCCP where victims of discrimination are identified. However, failure to comply with the Executive order or with the rules, regulations, and orders issued under the order may result in a recommendation for appropriate proceedings under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964; cancellation, termination, or suspension of a contract; contract continuance that is conditioned on an approved program for compliance; and/or debarment from further Government contracts.

Compliance procedures vary somewhat by type of industry. *Service or supply contractors or subcontractors* who have 50 or more employees and a contract of $50,000 or more or Government bills of lading totaling $50,000 in any 12-month period must, within 120 days from commencement of the contract, develop a written affirmative action compliance program for each of their establishments. The requirement also applies to financial institutions that have 50 or more employees and serve as a depository of Government funds or as an agent for issuing and paying U.S. savings bonds and savings notes in any amount.

Regulations that became effective in December 1971 set forth the required contents of affirmative action programs for women and minorities. These include a review of the work force within each job group at a facility,

[8] The OFCCP also administers programs to assure affirmative action by Federal contractors with respect to handicapped workers, disabled veterans, and Vietnam-era veterans.

establishment of goals and timetables where it is found that there are fewer women and minorities than would reasonably be expected by their availability, the internal and external dissemination of an equal employment policy, and management responsibility for implementing and monitoring the policy. Techniques to improve recruitment and increase the flow of female or minority applicants are suggested. Goals are not to be rigid and inflexible quotas that must be met, but rather are to serve as targets that are reasonably attainable by application of every good faith effort.

OFCCP regulations, effective in 197[illegible] provide a specific framework for *construction contractors* to carry out equal employment and affirmative action programs for women and minorities.[8] Among examples of affirmative action steps required of such contractors are ensuring that work sites are free of harassment, assigning two or more women to each construction project when possible, providing written notification of employment opportunities to female recruitment sources and community organizations, notifying OFCCP if the union referral process impedes efforts to meet affirmative action obligations, disseminating the equal employment opportunity policy within the company and in advertising and actively recruiting women in apprenticeship or other training.

OFCCP also published a notice effective in 1978 which set nationwide goals and timetables for the employment of women by contractors and subcontractors with a construction contract in excess of $10,000. In setting goals, the OFCCP noted that females constituted 1.3 percent of the work force in the construction industry and 5 percent among workers in craft and kindred occupations, where jobs and working conditions are similar to those in construction. The goals established by OFCCP for employment and training of women in construction were 3.1 percent, 5 percent, and 6.9 percent for the first, second, and third years, respectively. These goals are percentages of the total number of hours to be worked by each covered contractor's aggregate on-site work force in each trade on all projects, either Federal or non-Federal.

In a separate but related action, the Department of Labor issued regulations, effective June 12, 1978, which set specific affirmative action requirements for women in apprenticeship programs that are registered with the Department or with recognized State apprenticeship agencies. Removing traditional barriers to women in apprenticeship can be a significant step toward increasing women's opportunities for employment by Federal contractors.

In addition, the OFCCP has issued sex discrimination guidelines. These guidelines, effective June 1970, forbid advertising under male and female classifications, basing seniority lists on sex, denying jobs to qualified applicants because of State statutes that were enacted to protect women in the workplace, making distinctions between married and unmarried persons of only one sex, terminating employees of only one sex upon their reaching a particular age, and penalizing women in their conditions of employment because they require leave for childbearing.

In 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982, OFCCP published a series of proposals for change in the agency's affirmative action requirements under Executive Order 11246, and under statutes relating to Vietnam-era and disabled veterans and handicapped persons. The most recent proposals would streamline enforcement and reduce certain reporting requirements and paperwork, especially for small contractors. Among the issues addressed in recent proposals were the size of a contractor required to prepare a written affirmative action program, methods of determining underutilization and availability of minorities and women, changes in standards for sexual harassment, methods for setting goals for women in construction, and back pay as a remedy for discrimination. Comments have been received from the public on these proposals and analyzed, but no final determinations have been made.

Age Discrimination in Employment Act

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 (ADEA), as amended, prohibits discrimination against applicants or workers because of age. It applies to employers of 20 or more persons, to labor organizations which have 25 or more members, or which refer persons for employment to covered employers, or which represent employees of employers who are covered by the law, and to employment agencies which refer individuals to at least one covered employer. State and local governments have been covered since May 1, 1974, regardless of the number of employees (elected officials, their appointees, and certain advisers are outside the scope of the law).

Originally, only persons 40 to 65 years old were protected. Amendments in 1978 raised the upper age limit to 70 years, effective January 1979. Specifically exempted were: (1) the involuntary retirement before age 70 of an employee who is at least 65 years of age, has been serving in a bona fide executive or high policymaking position, and is entitled to an annual benefit of $27,000 or more

[8] Until May 8, 1978, the programs were for minorities only and were in effect through "hometown plans" (voluntary agreements among contractors, unions, and representatives of the local minority community which were approved by the OFCCP), imposed plans (these applied only to projects in excess of $500,000 and for the most part covered major metropolitan areas with substantial Federal or federally assisted construction), and special bid conditions (which applied to contractors in certain high impact projects in areas not covered by hometown or imposed plans). The 1978 regulations allowed hometown plans to remain in effect, but eliminated special bid conditions and imposed plans. However, goals and timetables for minority workers that were established by the plans continued to apply until November 3, 1980, when separate minority goals became effective for each Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) and each economic area (EA), the standard geographical unit where there is no SMSA.

upon retirement; and (2) the involuntary retirement before age 70 of a permanently tenured employee of a higher educational institution who is at least 65 years of age (this exemption was in effect only until July 1, 1982). For most Federal civilian workers, an upper age limit for employment was eliminated (see chapter VI on Federal Employment).

Under the ADEA, these are unlawful employment practices:

- For an *employer* to fail or refuse to hire, or to discharge, or otherwise discriminate against any individual with respect to compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment because of the individual's age; to limit, segregate, or classify employees in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive an individual of job opportunities, or otherwise adversely affect the person's status as an employee because of age; or to reduce the wage rate of any employee in order to comply with the act;
- For an *employment agency* to fail or refuse to refer an individual for employment, or in any other way discriminate against an individual because of age, or to classify or refer persons for employment on the basis of age;
- For a *labor organization* to exclude or expel from membership, or otherwise discriminate against any individual because of age; to limit, segregate, or classify its membership, or to classify or fail or refuse to refer for employment any individual in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive the individual of employment opportunities, or which would limit employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect a person's status as an employee or as a job applicant, because of age; or to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate on the basis of age.

The law does not apply if any age requirement or limit is: (1) a bona fide job qualification (for example, models for "junior miss" fashions) or is based on reasonable factors other than age; or (2) part of a bona fide seniority system or employee benefit plan, except that no benefit plan or seniority system will excuse mandatory retirement or refusal to hire based on age. The law does not prohibit discharge or discipline of an employee for good cause.

In 1979 the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that an individual who believes that she or he has been discriminated against because of age cannot sue her or his employer in Federal court until a complaint has been brought to the appropriate State agency, *Oscar Mayer v. Evans,* 441 U.S. 750 (1979). After the individual has filed the complaint with the State agency, there is a 60-day waiting period before she or he can go into Federal court with the complaint. However, the administrative process can proceed in both the State agency and the EEOC concurrently. Unlike the procedure under title VII, the aggrieved person does not have to wait for a "right to sue" notice from EEOC before proceeding to Federal court. The filing of a charge and the 60-day waiting period constitute exhaustion of the administrative remedy for the purposes of filing a civil action under the ADEA.

The President's Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978 transferred enforcement authority for the ADEA from the Department of Labor to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, effective July 1, 1979.

Oversight and Coordination of Federal Equal Employment Opportunity

An early attempt to provide some oversight of Federal equal opportunity efforts was contained in the Civil Rights Act of 1957, which created a temporary Commission on Civil Rights. Several subsequent laws have continued the independent and bipartisan Commission and modified its advisory duties. These include the appraisal of Federal laws and policies with respect to the denial of equal protection of the laws for reasons of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, or in the administration of justice. Commission findings and recommendations are submitted to both the President and the Congress.

Within the legislative branch, the General Accounting Office occasionally has been asked to appraise the effectiveness of the Government's equal employment opportunity efforts. The Congress also has performed oversight responsibilities in this area through formal hearings.

The piecemeal development of Federal antidiscrimination provisions, often with concurrent jurisdiction assigned to two or three agencies, gave rise to concerns in the 1970's that there would be inconsistent enforcement of civil rights laws, regulations, or Executive orders banning discrimination in employment. In response to these concerns, the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 established the Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinating Council (EEOCC), composed of the Secretary of Labor, the Attorney General, and the heads of the EEOC, the U.S. Civil Service Commission, and the Commission on Civil Rights.

The EEOCC, lacking the staff and authority of a lead agency, was not successful in accomplishing its mission. Reorganization Plan No. 1. of 1978 transferred the functions of the EEOCC to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, and Executive Order 12067 further delineated EEOC's responsibilities for providing leadership and coordination to develop uniform standards, policies and procedures in all Federal equal employment programs. The reorganization plan also consolidated responsibility for enforcing Executive Order 11246, prohibiting discrimination in employment in work done under Federal contracts or subcontracts or under federally assisted construction contracts, in the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs of the Department of

Labor. Also, under the plan the enforcement of equal employment opportunity for Federal employees was transferred from the Civil Service Commission to the EEOC. Enforcement responsibility for equal pay and age discrimination also was transferred to the EEOC, effective July 1, 1979.

The EEOC has published regulations[7] outlining the procedures under which consultation and coordination are conducted between the EEOC and Federal agencies and departments that are authorized to enforce Federal laws requiring equal employment opportunity. A further effort to assure a consistent and coherent government-wide civil rights program was the creation of a special civil rights unit in the office of the Director of the Office of Management and Budget.

Antidiscrimination Provisions for Federally Assisted Programs

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 says that, "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." Title VI does *not* prohibit sex discrimination and it does not apply to employment practices except where a primary objective of Federal assistance is to provide employment. However, title VII of the act deals with employment and does prohibit sex discrimination.

In the late 1960's and during the 1970's the Congress regularly inserted nondiscrimination clauses in laws authorizing programs that expend Federal funds, whether directly or through grants, loans, or contracts to States and localities or to such groups as community organizations or universities. Many of these clauses seek to assure that the benefits and services of Federal programs are provided without discrimination. Some also bar discrimination in employment in the program itself.

The prohibited bases of discrimination vary. For example, title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibits sex discrimination in most federally assisted education programs, with certain exceptions such as public colleges and universities that have always had a policy of admitting only students of one sex.[8] The Age Discrimination Act of 1975, effective July 1, 1979, prohibits discrimination on the basis of age in federally assisted programs, with certain exceptions such as programs which are targeted at youth or older workers. The prohibited bases of discrimination in Federal legislation usually are race, color, religion, national origin, and sex. In some laws, mental or physical handicap, marital status, and age are also included.

A 1978 General Accounting Office study identified 78 Federal laws and Executive orders promoting nondiscrimination in employment, public services, housing, education, credit, public accommodations, voting and jury service, and criminal and civil remedy programs. Nearly 70 percent of these laws and orders directly affect equal employment opportunity in such areas as the communications industry, revenue sharing, comprehensive employment and training programs, and the armed services.

The Attorney General has long had responsibility for coordinating enforcement of title VI by all Executive agencies. On November 2, 1980, Executive Order 12250 on Leadership and Coordination of Nondiscrimination Laws gave the Justice Department even more responsibilities by stating that the Attorney General shall coordinate enforcement of title IX of the Education Amendments, nondiscrimination provisions of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1963, and other Federal financial assistance programs. An exception is the Age Discrimination Act, which assigns coordination responsibility to the Department of Health and Human Services.

The Occupational Safety and Health Act

The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 (Public Law 91-596) is the first comprehensive Federal legislation in the field of occupational safety and health. The act requires employers to provide their employees with safe and healthful working conditions and to comply with standards, rules, and regulations issued under the act that pertain to their place of employment.

Three agencies carry out major functions under the act:

- The Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) in the U.S. Department of Labor. OSHA's functions include setting and enforcing occupational safety and health standards; encouraging voluntary efforts by employers and employees to provide effective safety and health programs in the workplace; fostering strong occupational safety and health training programs; working in partnership with States operating their own job safety and health programs; and providing information and advice to employers and employees concerning prevention of occupational illness and injury.
- The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) in the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. NIOSH conducts research on safety and health problems, develops criteria on the use of hazardous materials in the workplace,

[7] 45 FR 68358, October 14, 1980.

[8] On May 17, 1982, the Supreme Court held that title IX was intended by Congress to include coverage of employees as well as students in educational institutions receiving Federal financial assistance. The Court also concluded that the authority to withhold funds under title IX is subject to program-specific limitations.

provides technical assistance to OSHA, and, directly or by grants or contracts, works to develop qualified personnel to carry out the purposes of the act.

- The Occupational Safety and Health Review Commission (OSHRC). This is an independent body which rules on employer and employee appeals of OSHA citations, penalties, abatement orders, and time periods. The three members of the Commission are appointed by the President for a 6-year term.

Federal Employee Safety and Health Programs

Federal agencies, as well as private employers, are covered, with each agency required to establish and maintain an effective and comprehensive occupational safety and health program. Under the act, OSHA was given only advisory and evaluative functions in connection with the Federal programs. The Federal agency responsibilities and OSHA functions in regard to Federal safety and health programs were spelled out in Executive Order 11807 of September 1974. This was superseded by Executive Order 12196 of February 26, 1980, which sets out in greater detail the responsibilities of Federal agencies under the Occupational Safety and Health Act and clarifies OSHA's responsibilities toward the agency programs. OSHA is to issue basic program elements, prescribe recordkeeping and reporting requirements, assist agencies with training and training materials, provide technical services, evaluate agency safety and health programs, conduct unannounced inspections of agency workplaces under certain conditions, and submit to the President an annual report on the agency safety and health programs. Final rules for the Federal occupational safety and health program were published October 22, 1980. OSHA is now developing a "model" Federal employee safety and health program to cover Federal employees and a targeting system to focus the agency's attention on those Federal worksites which are most hazardous.

State Programs

States may take the responsibility for workplace health and safety in their own States, but the programs must be approved by OSHA and must provide for the development and enforcement of safety and health standards that are at least as effective as the Federal standards. The 24 states which operate their own programs serve as partners of Federal OSHA. In 1982, OSHA was moving away from on-site monitoring of these State programs toward a statistical indicator monitoring system, and in 1981 eliminated dual Federal enforcement of safety and health regulations in these States in favor of sole State authority for enforcement.

There are important limitations to the act's application. It does not apply to working conditions addressed by enforceable safety and health standards issued by other Federal agencies, such as certain working conditions of railroad workers engaged in the operation of trains. They are already protected by standards issued by the Federal Railroad Administration of the Department of Transportation. The act also does not apply to employees of State and local governments. However, it does provide that any State desiring to take responsibility for workplace health and safety in the private sector in its own State must also provide a program for State and local employees that is at least as effective as its programs for private employees.

OSHA Standards

Section 6 of the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 gives OSHA the authority to establish occupational safety and health standards. Compliance is mandatory.

OSHA health standards set worker exposure limits to toxic substances, carcinogens, radiation, noise, dust, and other occupational health hazards. In 1971 OSHA adopted consensus standards for more than 400 harmful physical agents. In addition to exposure limits, the standards issued since 1971 cover contamination control, protective equipment for employees, hygiene practices, medical surveillance, employee training, and employer reporting and recordkeeping requirements.

The agency has issued standards on acrylonitrile, inorganic arsenic, asbestos, benzene, 14 carcinogens,[9] coke oven emissions, cotton dust, Dibromochloropropane (DBCP), lead,[10] and vinyl chloride. Large numbers of

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[9] Thirteen of the 14 carcinogen standards were in effect in November 1980, but the standard for MBOCA (formerly called MOCA, an acronym for the chemical substance 4, 4 methylene bis (2-chloroaniline)) was struck down in 1974 by the Third Circuit, and was returned to OSHA for new rulemaking.

[10] The standard for lead was upheld by the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia Circuit (*United Steelworkers v. Marshall*, 647 F.2d 1189 (2d Cir. 1980)). On June 29, 1981, the U.S. Supreme Court denied review of the Appeals Court decision, thus leaving the lower court's decision intact (*Lead Industries Assn., Inc. v. Donovan*, cert. denied, 49 U.S.L.W. 3964 (U.S. June 29, 1981)).

The Appeals Court said that OSHA had justified immediate application of the standard to industries where exposure to lead is the highest. However, OSHA was required to review the data on economic and technological feasibility of the standard for industries where lead exposure is not as great. Supplementary statements on feasibility were submitted to the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia Circuit on January 21, 1981, and December 11, 1981.

The Court also upheld the medical removal protection provision of the lead standard. Under this provision, workers whom a medical determination has shown to be at risk of sustaining material impairment to health are to be removed for up to 18 months from areas where lead exposure is high to areas where exposures are lower, without loss of seniority or pay. They are to be returned to their former job when the period of removal ends. Over time, lead is eliminated from the human body and removal from a high lead exposure area aids in lowering lead levels in the body.

In the Executive Summary to the lead standard, OSHA stated that "temporary removal may in particular cases be needed for workers desiring to parent a child in the near future or for particular pregnant employees. Some males may need a temporary removal so that their sperm can regain sufficient viability for fertilization; some women may need a temporary removal to slightly lower their blood lead levels so that prior lead exposure will not harm the fetus."

women work in occupations where they may be exposed to some of these substances.

In 1982 the agency was in the process of reviewing its standard providing worker access to employer-maintained medical and workplace toxic exposure records, its carcinogen policy, and its standards covering worker exposure to cotton dust and lead.

As a result of the Supreme Court decisions vacating OSHA's benzene standard[11] and affirming the agency's cotton dust standard,[12] the agency has adopted a four-step process for developing new health standards. First, OSHA must show that a significant risk to worker health exists. Second, the agency must determine that an OSHA standard can reduce that demonstrated risk. Third, OSHA considers scientific data along with economic and technological feasibility assessments to determine what exposure limit is appropriate. In analyzing feasibility, OSHA considers an entire industry; thus, a rule may disrupt an individual company, but it cannot threaten the long-term profitability of an entire industry. Finally, once the appropriate level of protection is established, the agency selects the most cost-effective means of achieving that level of protection. The goal is to produce standards which provide adequate protection for workers without imposing on society any unnecessary requirements or expense.

OSHA safety standards are concerned with the prevention of accidents and traumatic injuries to workers.

In the initial years of the program, OSHA issued so-called "national consensus" standards that had been developed by voluntary standards-making organizations. The standards were heavily criticized for their lack of pertinence to specific worksites and for the inadequate safety protection they offered. In establishing new priorities, OSHA also revoked nearly a thousand provisions of its earlier standards. Although OSHA had proposed to revoke the requirement for separate toilet rooms for each sex, it decided to retain the requirement based on the comments it received. (There is an exception to this rule for facilities that contain at least one toilet and that can be occupied by no more than one person at a time and that can be locked from the inside.)

In 1979 OSHA consolidated all of its general industry standards applying to the construction industry and its construction standards into one volume, eliminating the need for the industry to refer to two standards rather than one. Other OSHA standards are subject to ongoing review.

Enforcement

In 1982 approximately 40 million employees in 3 million workplaces were covered by Federal OSHA; States operating State OSHA programs covered an additional 30 million workers in 2 million workplaces.

OSHA targets the majority of its safety inspections on firms in high hazard industries which have the worst injury records. OSHA also has a targeting program for its health inspections. OSHA also conducts inspections in response to employee complaints and reports of worker deaths and multiple hospitalizations. OSHA issues citations and proposes penalties for alleged violations of its safety and health standards found during its inspections.

OSHA compliance officers recommend feasible hazard abatement methods to employers who are cited for violations of OSHA standards. In addition, the agency encourages informal settlement of employer disagreements with OSHA inspection findings to avoid lengthy administrative or legal proceedings. The agency stresses cooperation and favors speedy abatement of hazards over high penalties and protracted legal disputes which can result in delayed abatement of hazards while a violation is under contest.

Consultation, Training, and Education

Employers who want help in recognizing and correcting safety and health hazards in their workplaces can request a free on-site consultation funded by OSHA and delivered in most States by State agencies or universities. Primarily targeted for smaller businesses, this program is completely separate from the OSHA inspection effort. Thus, no citations are issued or penalties proposed. In 1982, the agency was conducting a pilot program in seven southern States which offered one-year inspection exemptions to employers participating in the on-site consultation program provided they abated any hazards found by the consultant.

OSHA encourages nonprofit organizations such as unions, trade associations, universities and others to establish ongoing safety and health training and education

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[11] The standard for benzene, one of the most widely used substances in U.S. industry, was struck down by the U.S. Supreme Court *(Industrial Union Department, AFL-CIO v. American Petroleum Institute,* 100 S. Ct. 2844 (1980), and *Marshall v. American Petroleum Institute,* 100 S. Ct. 2844 (1980)). The Court ruled that OSHA had failed to establish that it was necessary to lower the benzene exposure limit to 1 ppm (1 part benzene per million parts of air) in order to provide safe and healthful employment. The Court also said that before the agency can promulgate *any* permanent health or safety standard, it "must make a threshold finding that the place of employment is unsafe in the sense that significant risks are present and can be eliminated or lessened by a change in practices."

[12] On June 17, 1981, the U.S. Supreme Court affirmed in all respects but one a decision by the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia Circuit upholding the cotton dust standard *(American Textile Manufacturers Institute, Inc. v. Donovan,* 101 S. Ct. 2478 (1981)). The validity of the standard had been challenged by representatives of the cotton industry, who alleged that the Occupational Safety and Health Act requires OSHA to demonstrate that the standard reflects a reasonable relationship between the costs and benefits associated with the standard. The Court ruled that the act does not require OSHA to conduct a cost-benefit analysis in promulgating a standard. On the other hand, the Court did not affirm the holding of the Appeals Court that OSHA has the authority to require employers to guarantee the wage and employment benefits of employees who transfer to another position because they are unable to wear a respirator. It held that OSHA had failed to make the necessary determination or statement of reasons that its wage guarantee requirement is related to the achievement of a safe and healthful work environment. This portion of the case is to be sent back to the Secretary of Labor for further proceedings consistent with the decision.

programs for employers and employees. Under its New Directions grant program, the agency provides seed money to these organizations to begin these training efforts.

In addition, OSHA operates a training institute to further the safety and health education of its own personnel as well as other Federal and State officials. Some courses are open to the public.

Special Initiatives

Voluntary compliance with OSHA standards is encouraged by OSHA's voluntary protection programs Star, Praise, and Try. Developed in 1982, these programs are designed to recognize excellent safety and health programs already in place at the worksite and in turn provide employers exemption from routine OSHA inspections.

Reproductive Hazards

In recent years, women workers have reported that some companies are adopting or expanding policies that exclude women of childbearing age and pregnant women from jobs involving potential exposure to certain toxic substances because of possible fetal damage.

In April 1981, the Occupational Safety and Health Review Commission reviewed an employer's policy that excludes women aged 16 to 50 from production jobs in the employer's lead pigments department unless the women have been surgically sterilized. In its decision the Commission held that such a policy is not a hazard within the meaning of the general duty clause of the Occupational Safety and Health Act, *American Cyanamid Company,* OSHRC Docket No. 79-5762, 9 BNA OSHC 1596, 1981 CCH OSHD 25,338 (R.C. 1981), *appeal filed,* No. 81-1687 (D.C. Cir., June 22, 1981). The case grew out of a complaint filed with the Occupational Safety and Health Administration by the Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers International Union, AFL-CIO, in December 1978. The stated purpose of the "fetus protection policy" is to protect the fetuses of women exposed to lead, particularly during early pregnancy when the employee might not know of her pregnancy.

The general duty clause requires employers to provide employment free from recognized hazards likely to cause death or serious physical harm. The Commission viewed an employee's decision to undergo sterilization in order to gain or retain employment as growing out of social and economic factors outside the workplace that the employer neither creates nor controls. They felt that it was clear that Congress conceived of occupational hazards in terms of processes and materials which cause injury or disease by operating directly upon employees as they engage in work or work-related activity.

Employer policies on reproductive hazards have also been brought before and dealt with in the courts. In a December 1982 decision, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit required a lower court to re-examine its decision on an employer's reproductive hazards policy. The U.S. District Court for the Western District of North Carolina had found no merit in the charge that the employer's policy discriminates against women and therefore violates title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended (CCH Employment Practices, #33,257). The employer in this case does not allow women of childbearing capacity to occupy certain job classifications because of possible harmful effects of certain chemicals upon the unborn fetus.

The Occupational Safety and Health Administration feels that lack of information makes it impossible for it to address workplace reproductive hazards as a generic issue. Thus, it considers and deals with reproductive hazards to human health on a case-by-case basis.

Examples of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration's concern for potential reproductive hazards in its rulemaking on health standards include:

- Information about sterility in male workers was a factor in OSHA's 1978 decision to regulate the manufacture and formulation of the nematocide Dibromochloropropane (DBCP).
- In Advance Notice of Proposed Rulemaking on ethylene oxide and ethylene dibromide, OSHA refers to studies showing that both of these chemicals are mutagens or teratogens in experimental animals.
- In its proposed hazard communication standard, OSHA has proposed to prohibit chemical manufacturers from withholding the chemical name of a substance that is a mutagen or teratogen.

Laboratory and epidemiologic investigation of chemical reproductive hazards was initiated by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) in 1974 and has since become a major part of their research. During the early years of research on reproductive hazards of work, NIOSH emphasized hazards to women workers and the potential dangers to the developing fetus from exposures to the mother. In 1977, the discovery that the chemical DBCP caused sterility in male workers brought to the attention of researchers the potential reproductive effects of workplace chemicals on men.

Public Employment Service

The Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 authorized the creation of a cooperative Federal-State employment service system to develop policies and methods for coordinating and guiding a nationwide network of about 2,200 public employment offices. The Federal "partner," the U.S. Employment Service (USES), is a unit of the Department

of Labor. Local offices of the State partner are now identified as the Job Service in most States.

The USES establishes procedures, standards, and guidelines for the operation of the system and approves State plans for the delivery of services. State Job Service offices function as a labor exchange and, without charge, match the abilities and interests of workers with employer job openings. Among the tasks involved in this process are:

- Interviewing jobseekers and identifying their job skills, knowledge, and interests;
- Listing job openings received from employers;
- Referring applicants who meet employer requirements for listed jobs;
- Counseling and testing jobseekers who are not easily placed or who are seeking a job change or training to help them obtain suitable employment;
- Developing labor market information on employment, unemployment, and job opportunities for individual areas, industries, and occupations; and
- Providing job match and referral services to jobseekers who are interested in relocating.

New needs and legislation have added a variety of functions to the original concept of matching job-ready workers with available employer openings. Job Service offices are responsible in many areas for various job development, placement, recruitment, and other services under the Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 (JTPA), which replaced the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act effective October 1, 1983. JTPA requires coordination between Job Service offices and Service Delivery Areas (SDA's) on the State and local levels (see chapter IV).

Job Service offices also have specific duties relating to target applicant groups such as Vietnam-era veterans, handicapped persons, older workers, youth, minorities, persons applying for or receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children, migrant and seasonal farmworkers, women, and workers whose jobs are adversely affected by foreign imports. Local Job Service offices also have specific duties relating to the following groups:

- *Veterans*—By law and regulations, veterans receive priority (with preferential treatment for disabled veterans) in all services leading to employment and training.
- *Youth*—Services are geared to provide employment assistance to youth between the ages of 16 and 22 who are in school, are high school dropouts, or are graduates entering the labor market. To assist youth in choosing work that is within their interests and abilities, services are provided through three components: a year-round program, a cooperative Employment Service school program, and a summer youth program.
- *Women*—The full range of services (counseling, referral to training, job development, etc.,) are designed to help women overcome barriers to employment and to obtain jobs at their highest skill level. Guidance is also available in the selection of a child care facility.
- *Older workers*—Middle-aged and older workers are provided all services within the scope and responsibility of the Job Service, including specialized job placement, occupational testing, local labor market information, counseling, and referral to training and employment programs administered by State and local governments.
- *Handicapped*—Special placement techniques are offered that seek to match the physical and mental demands of a job to the capabilities of a worker. Such services are given in cooperation with other community agencies and include counseling and special placement assistance.
- *Rural residents and workers*—Year-round assistance in the full range of employment services is available to rural residents and workers. They also receive special services in the areas of recruitment and placement in farm and woods occupations. Growers receive assistance in meeting critical seasonal labor needs and in moving workers from supply to demand areas.
- *Disadvantaged individuals*—Such services as testing, counseling, referral to training and other supportive services, job search and development, placement, and followup are provided. This help is for the poor and unemployed or underemployed persons handicapped by race, age, lack of education, or physical or mental disabilities.
- *Employers*—Assistance is given employers in obtaining workers with special skills or other requirements, in developing personnel management tools, and in identifying and resolving internal work force problems such as turnover, absenteeism, and special recruitment difficulties. Auxiliary services include comprehensive information on employment, unemployment, and other labor market activity on a local, State, regional, and national basis. Also, in virtually every major urban area, the Job Service operates a computerized job bank, updated on a regular basis, usually daily, to list local job openings, and in 24 States computerized Job Service matching with either overnight or on-line matching of applicants to jobs or jobs to applicants. The Job Service can also assist employers in obtaining tax credit certifications under the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit Program.

Unemployment Insurance

Under the Federal-State unemployment insurance system, benefits are paid in cash as a matter of right, with-

out reference to individual need, to involuntarily unemployed persons who meet eligibility tests and who are "able and available" for suitable work. Federal legislation sets certain minimum standards for the program. However, the laws of the individual States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands determine, for the most part, such matters as earnings and/or working time requirements; duration and amount of benefits; and penalties for refusal to accept suitable work, discharge for misconduct, or voluntary quits without good cause.

In the 1960's, units of two Presidential advisory bodies called attention to some areas of unemployment compensation laws that discriminated against women.[13] These were: special disqualifications for pregnant women and women in the postpartum period, special disqualifications for leaving work because of marital obligations, and payment of dependents' allowances to female claimants on a more restricted basis than to male claimants. In December 1970, and again in May 1972, the Labor Department issued program letters urging State administrative agencies to seek action in their legislatures to remove the discriminatory provisions.

In 1975 the U.S. Supreme Court struck down as unconstitutional the section of Utah's law that denied benefits for a period beginning 12 weeks before an expected childbirth and ending 6 weeks after the birth, *Turner v. Utah Department of Employment Security*, 435 U.S. 44 (1975). By that time, more than a dozen States had repealed provisions in their laws relating to disqualifications for pregnancy or had ceased to enforce such provisions, but 23 States still had such provisions.

The Unemployment Compensation Amendments of 1976 (Public Law 94-566) added a Federal standard that prohibits States from continuing to enforce any provision denying unemployment compensation benefits *solely* on the basis of pregnancy or recency of pregnancy, thus making claimants subject only to the generally applicable criteria of seeking work, availability for work, and ability to work.

The Congress also added coverage of certain farmworkers and of most State and local government employees—the latter a group with many women. The Congress also extended coverage to private household workers whose employers paid wages of $1,000 or more in any calendar quarter of the current or preceding year. This resulted in coverage for an estimated 128,000 private household jobs.

The Unemployment Compensation Amendments of 1976 established a National Commission on Unemployment Compensation for the purpose of undertaking a comprehensive examination of the present unemployment insurance system and developing recommendations for further changes. Several of the recommendations contained in the July 1980 preliminary report of the Commission are of particular interest to women. These include:

- That the States remove disqualifications if the voluntary quit was for good cause (including compelling family circumstances and sexual harassment on the job).
- That State laws set no specific limitation which would automatically disqualify an individual who had a recent record of steady part-time employment, and that State policy not interpret job search or suitable work in such a manner as to automatically require availability only for full-time work.
- That each State employment service assign responsibility at the State and local levels to appropriate and qualified persons to be concerned with the establishment, implementation, and evaluation of appropriate services to displaced homemakers who register for work.

Union Participation and Other Protected Activities

The National Labor Relations Act, as amended by the Labor-Management Relations Act, provides employees the right to form, join, or assist labor unions; to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing on wages, hours, and other terms of employment; and to engage in other concerted activities for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid or protection, such as striking to secure better working conditions. Employees are also guaranteed the right to refrain from membership or participation in a union, except where such membership is a requirement of employment. Laws in some States do not permit union membership to be a requirement of employment. Such laws are referred to as right-to-work laws. In the States where a union membership requirement is permitted, an employee usually has a grace period of not less than 30 days after being hired to become a member.

Certain labor practices by employers are labeled "unfair" and are prohibited by the NLRA. These include interference with or restraint or coercion of employees in the exercise of the rights described above; domination of or interference with the formation or administration of a labor organization, or the contribution of financial or other support to it; discrimination in hiring, tenure, or terms or conditions of employment in order to encourage or discourage membership in a labor organization; discharging or discriminating against an employee for filing charges or giving testimony under the act; and refusing to bargain collectively.

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[13] *Report of the Committee on Social Insurance and Taxes*, President's Commission on the Status of Women, October 1963. Also, *Report of the Task Force on Social Insurance and Taxes*, Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women, April 1968.

The law also defines unfair labor practices prohibited to unions. Unfair practices against workers include restraining them or coercing them in the exercise of their rights and requiring them to pay membership or initiation fees that are excessive or that discriminate between members. It is also an unfair practice for a union to cause an employer to discriminate against a worker. Maintaining separate locals for male and female employees is an example of the unfair practice of restraining and coercing employees in the exercise of their right to be represented by a representative of their own choosing. Some types of workers are exempt from the law. These include agricultural laborers, private household workers, independent contractors, supervisors, persons subject to the Railway Labor Act, public employees, and some hospital workers.

The Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act (LMRDA) provides for the reporting and public disclosure of certain financial transactions and administrative practices of unions, union officers and employees, employers, labor relations consultants, and surety companies. It lays down a set of ground rules governing the use of union trusteeships and establishes democratic standards for union officer elections. It also establishes safeguards for the protection of union funds and property.

The LMRDA includes a Bill of Rights of members of labor organizations which protects their freedom of speech and assembly and their equal rights to nominate candidates for union office, vote in union elections and referendums, and attend and participate in membership meetings. It guarantees certain rights to union members facing discipline by labor organizations and establishes procedures which a labor organization must follow in increasing dues and initiation fees and imposing assessments. The LMRDA Bill of Rights establishes the right of an employee to review, or in some cases to obtain, a copy of each collective bargaining agreement directly affecting his or her rights as an employee.

The Department of Labor is responsible for enforcing some provisions of the LMRDA. Other provisions, however, are enforceable only through private suit by union members.

Major Retirement Income Programs

Almost all workers in the United States are now covered by social security and/or by one or more of over 500,000 separate pension plans provided by Federal, State and local governments, and by private corporations. Social security covers over 90 percent of all paid employment, including almost all private sector employees and a majority of State and local government employees. There are separate public pension programs for Federal civilian employees and military personnel who are also covered by social security (see chapter VI on Laws Relating to Federal Employment) and for some State and local employees; private pension plans have been established by private employers to supplement social security. All of these plans, developed at different times to meet different needs, vary in size and in provision for benefit eligibility, retirement ages, contributions, benefit levels, and financial solvency, and are subject to a complex legal and regulatory environment. While they provide an impressive, if unequal, array of retirement benefits, they do not constitute a unified comprehensive system of retirement income for all workers.[14]

Social Security

Note: After the manuscript for this *Handbook* went to press, Congress enacted major amendments to the Social Security Act, primarily to assure the solvency of the social security trust funds. The amendments postpone the June 1983 cost-of-living increase for 6 months and the effective month of all future cost-of-living increases to December; bring new Federal employees and employees of nonprofit organizations under social security and prevent termination of social security coverage of employees of State and local governments in the system; subject part of the social security benefits of those above a certain income level to Federal income tax; make changes benefiting certain widowed, divorced, and disabled women; and require the Secretary of Health and Human Services to report on earnings sharing proposals and to include recommendations for feasible methods for implementing such proposals in the report. The 1983 amendments that change material already dealt with in the text have been incorporated below in bold type.

Current Issues Relating to Women—When the social security program was established in 1935, basic protection was provided for workers in jobs covered under social security. In 1939, before the first social security benefits were paid, supplementary protection was provided for workers' wives and widows as dependents. This method of providing protection reflected a pattern of family relationships in our society—lifelcng marriages in which women are homemakers while men provide economic support—that was much more common at that time than it is today.

As noted in a 1979 report to the Congress by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, there is increasing public debate over the way women are treated

[14] *Social Security and Pensions: Programs of Equity and Security*, a section of the *Special Study on Economic Change*, the Joint Economic Committee of the U.S. Congress, 1980.

under the social security program.[17] A central issue is whether the system of dependents' benefits, designed decades ago, adequately serves a society in which more than half of the women of ages 16 and over work for pay outside the home. In a marriage in which both partners work, social security does not provide commensurately for paid work by both spouses. For example, the law entitles a wife (or husband) to a "spouse benefit" equal to 50 percent of the husband's (or wife's) benefit but a working wife who would be entitled to both a "spouse" and a worker benefit receives only the greater of the two. The result is that one-earner couples generally receive greater benefits than two-earner couples with the same total earned income.

Changes in marital patterns and the increase in divorce also affect the equity of social security benefits. At present, for example, a woman divorced after less than 10 years of marriage is not eligible for any social security benefits as a dependent of her ex-spouse, but is only eligible for benefits that she may have earned.

These and other issues in the treatment of women under social security have generated concern in recent years. A number of bills have been introduced in the Congress, and the then Department of Health, Education, and Welfare reported to the Congress, as requested, on some of the options for changing the system in order for it to be more responsive to the needs of women. Although various options were proposed, none was enacted. These options included allowing a married couple—whether or not both persons work—to average or combine their earnings; providing social security credits to homemakers; reducing or eliminating the spouse's benefit; and replacing part of social security with a demogrant that would go to everyone whether or not the individual had a work record. A report prepared by the Congressional Research Service of the Library of Congress commented on these potential changes in the social security system as follows:[18]

> While the structure of the present program does raise issues, it can be argued that the program does provide a "rough balance" and while change is possible, and may be desirable, it may not be necessary to enact the drastic changes that some have proposed to make the program more responsive to the changing role of women in society. For example, the dependents' benefit provides a basic benefit to low-earning women as well as to non-working women, while at the same time allowing for higher earning women to receive a greater social security benefit than the dependents receive. In addition, even in situations where two-earner families receive no more in total retirement benefits than one-earner families with a dependent, in the two-earner family both are covered by disability insurance under social security while the dependent spouse in a one-earner family is not.

It is likely that these "rough balancing" features will be emphasized as the debate continues on how the program should be changed to be more responsive to women's changing roles.

Basic Provisions of Social Security—Monthly social security benefits are paid to retired workers, workers who become totally disabled before age 65, and to certain dependents of workers who have retired, become disabled, or died.

When the Social Security Act was passed in 1935, title II—Old Age and Survivors Insurance (this is the portion providing for what is popularly called "social security")—consisted of 10 short sections and provided benefits only for certain types of employees when they reached 65 years old. Since then, title II has been amended many times in order to add benefits for survivors, dependents and former spouses of insured workers; provide protection for workers who become disabled; increase the rate and base of contributions; extend coverage to most self-employed persons, most State and local employees, household and farm employees, members of the Armed Forces, and clergy; offer reduced benefits before age 65; provide benefits at age 72 for certain uninsured individuals; and provide for the automatic increase of scheduled benefits with rises in the cost of living. In addition, when the Federal program of health insurance for the aged and disabled (usually referred to as "medicare") was set up, the eligibility provisions for hospital insurance benefits were placed in title II.

In recent years, the social security system also has been affected by court decisions, amendments, and administrative determinations dealing with sex-based differences in eligibility provisions. For example, in 1975 the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that a young widowed father with an entitled child in his care was eligible for the same benefits that the law provided for mothers in a similar situation, *Weinberger v. Wiesenfeld,* 420 U.S. 636 (1975). In 1977 the Court ruled in a case involving a widower who had been denied social security survivor's benefits because he failed to prove, as required, that he had received at least half of his support from his wife. The law had no dependency test for widows. The Court found that the different treatment of men and women, as mandated by the law, was invidious discrimination against female wage earners because it afforded them

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[17] *Social Security and the Changing Roles of Men and Women, 1979,* U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (now U.S. Department of Health and Human Services).

[18] *Women and Retirement Income Programs: Current Issues of Equity and Adequacy.* A report prepared by the Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress, for the Subcommittee on Retirement Income and Employment of the Select Committee on Aging, U.S. House of Representatives, Committee Publication 96-190, 1979.

less protection for their surviving spouses than was provided for male wage earners. Thus, the gender-based distinction violated the due process clause of the 5th amendment, *Califano v. Goldfarb, 430 U.S. 199 (1977).*

Extensive amendments seeking to assure the financial soundness of the social security program were considered in 1977. To forestall substantial "windfall" benefit payments to men under the *Goldfarb* decision, the administration proposed extending the dependency test to women as well as to men. Instead, Congress removed the test for men but provided that, in the future, social security dependent and survivor benefits for wives, husbands, widows, and widowers will be reduced by the amount of any Federal, State, or local government pension they receive based on their own work in employment not covered by social security. Because of concern that there might be large numbers of women, especially widows in their late fifties, whose retirement income was planned for on the assumption of the availability of full wife's or widow's benefits under social security, the offset provision does not apply to persons who are eligible for a public pension within 5 years of enactment of the amendments in December 1977, and who would have been eligible for a social security payment under the law as it was in effect and being administered in January 1977.[17]

Public Law 97-455, enacted January 12, 1983, provides that the offset does not apply to people who become eligible for a public pension before July 1983 and who can meet the one-half support requirements.

1983 amendment: provides that, for people who first become eligible after June 1983 for a Federal, State, or local government pension based on their own work in employment not covered by social security, any social security spouse's or surviving spouse's benefit to which they become entitled will be offset by two-thirds of the amount of the public pension.

In 1978 there was a district court ruling that it is unconstitutional to provide social security benefits to wives, but not to husbands, under age 62 who have in their care children who are entitled to benefits on a worker's record. Soon afterwards, there was a similar court decision with respect to benefits for surviving divorced husbands. These rulings were based largely on the *Wiesenfeld* decision, and the Federal Government decided against an appeal. **1983 amendment: amends the act to conform to court decisions by providing social security benefits for aged divorced husbands, aged or disabled surviving divorced husbands, and fathers who care for children of their retired, disabled or deceased wives or deceased former wives.**

In calendar year 1983 the earnings base used to compute contributions to social security is $35,700. The current rate of contributions for employed workers and their employers is 6.70 percent, including 1.30 percent for medicare hospital insurance. The rate for self-employed persons is 9.35 percent, with 1.30 percent earmarked for medicare hospital insurance. The annual maximum contribution for most workers is $2,391.90 in 1983.

Increases in the rate of contributions are scheduled by law. The rate for employees and employers will go to 7.00 percent in 1984; 7.05 percent in 1985; 7.15 percent in 1986; 7.51 percent in 1988; and 7.65 percent in 1990. These rates include medicare hospital insurance rates of 1.30 percent in 1984; 1.35 percent in 1985; and 1.40 percent in 1986 and after.

The rate for self-employed persons will go to 14.00 percent in 1984; 14.10 percent in 1985; 14.30 percent in 1986; 15.02 percent in 1988; and 15.30 percent in 1990. These rates include medicare hospital insurance tax rates of 2.60 percent in 1984; 2.70 percent in 1985; and 2.90 percent for 1986 and after.

The medicare portion of the rate for both groups is 1.30 percent for 1982-1984. It will go to 1.35 percent in 1985 and to 1.45 percent in 1986.

As noted above, the **1983** earnings base for social security contributions is **$35,700.** In subsequent years this base will rise automatically as earnings levels rise, so long as there is an automatic benefit increase each year that the base is raised.

Eligibility for social security benefits as a retired or disabled worker is based on an individual's year of birth and the number of quarters of years in covered work. In no case are more than 40 quarters needed to be fully insured. Before 1978, receipt of wages of $50 or more in a calendar quarter was the general measure of a quarter of coverage for nonfarm employment. Self-employed persons were credited with four quarters of coverage if they had a net profit in self-employment of $400 or more in a calendar year. Amendments in 1977 made the formula the same for computing coverage for the self-employed and for employed workers in most occupations. Both groups were credited with a quarter of coverage for each $370 of gross wages paid or net self-employment income in 1983. The amount for later years will be determined according to a formula based on average wages.

The monthly benefit due a retired worker is based on average earnings covered under social security over the years. The exact amount of the benefit is determined when an individual applies for retirement at the local Social Security office. For workers who became eligible for benefits before January 1982, a minimum benefit is paid if it is higher than the benefit based on the worker's

[17] The categories of persons who do not meet the criteria for the exception are: (1) men who do not meet the one-half support requirement that was struck down in *Goldfarb;* (2) divorced husbands (who did not become eligible for social security survivor benefits until a court decision in June 1977), and (3) divorced women married at least 10 years, but less than 30 years (who were first eligible for benefits in January 1979 under the provisions of the 1979 amendments).

actual earnings. For beneficiaries who reach age 62 or become disabled after 1981 or are the survivors of those who die after 1981, benefits are computed and paid solely on the basis of actual earnings, with no minimum benefit provided.

The law defines "retirement age" as 65 years. **1983 amendment: raises the normal retirement age to 67 in 2027 in 2 steps.** Covered individuals may elect to retire as early as age 62, with a permanent reduction in benefits based on the number of months before the 65th birthday that the retirement occurred. Persons who choose to work past retirement age get a "bonus" of up to 3 percent per year (1/4 of 1 percent per month) in their retirement benefits for each year of work up to age 72. For persons who reached 65 before 1982, the bonus is only 1 percent per year (1/12 of 1 percent per month). **1983 amendment: beginning in 1990, gradually increases the bonus by 1/2 of 1 percent every other year to 8 percent per year for persons who attain age 65 after 2007. It also lowers the age after which the delayed retirement credit will no longer be given from age 72 to 70 for months of delayed retirement after December 1983.**

Retired beneficiaries may continue to work, but until they reach age 70, under the retirement test, $1 in benefits is withheld for each $2 earned above a certain amount. That amount depends on age. For retirees 65 years of age or older, the annual exempt amount in 1983 is $6,600 and $4,920 for those under 65. The limits increase automatically as the level of average wages rises. **1983 amendment: beginning in 1990, the earnings test benefit withholding rate will be $1 for each $3 of excess earnings for retirees age 65 or older. Beginning in the year 2000, the age at which this lower withholding rate applies will increase as the retirement age increases.**

Disabled worker benefits are payable beginning the 6th full month of a severe physical or mental disability that prevents a person from doing any substantial gainful activity, and that is expected to last (or has lasted) for at least 12 months, or is expected to result in death. Persons who become disabled before age 24 need credit for 1½ years of work in the 3 years before they became disabled. Persons between 24 and 31 must have credit for half the time between their 21st birthday and the time they became disabled. Persons who become disabled at 31 or later generally need credit for at least 5 years of work out of the 10 years ending when they became disabled. Workers under age 46 who first become entitled to disability benefits after June 1980 are subject to special limits on the number of years of low or no earnings that can be excluded in calculating average monthly earnings for benefit purposes.

Dependents eligible for benefits based on the account of a retired or disabled worker are:

- Unmarried children under 18 (or under 19 if full-time elementary or secondary school students).
- Unmarried children 18 or over who were severely disabled before 22 and who continue to be disabled.
- Former wife or husband 62 or over if the marriage lasted 10 years or more.
- Wife or husband 62 or over.
- Wife or husband under 62 if caring for retired or disabled worker's child who is under 16 (or disabled child), and who is getting a benefit based on the worker's earnings.

Monthly payments can be made to a deceased worker's:

- Unmarried children under 18 (or under 19 if full-time elementary or secondary school students).
- Unmarried children 18 or over who were severely disabled before 22 and who continue to be disabled.
- Widow or widower 60 or older.
- Surviving divorced wife or husband 60 or older if the marriage lasted 10 years or more.
- Widow, widower, or surviving divorced mother or father if caring for a deceased worker's child who is under 16 (or disabled child), and who is getting a benefit based on the earnings of the deceased worker.
- Widow or widower 50 or older who becomes disabled not later than 7 years after worker's death, or within 7 years after mother's or father's benefits end.
- Disabled surviving divorced wife or husband 50 or older if the marriage lasted 10 years or more.
- Dependent parents 62 or older.

Dependent's benefits paid to the aged spouse of a retired or disabled person are reduced if drawn before age 65. If the spouse waits until age 65 to start drawing benefits, benefits are equal to half of the retired or disabled person's full benefit amount. A widow or widower is entitled at age 65 to a benefit equal to 100 percent of the deceased spouse's full benefit amount. (If the worker had retired before age 65 and had been receiving reduced benefits, the widow's or widower's benefit is limited to the amount the worker would be receiving if she or he were alive, but not less than 82½ percent of the worker's full benefit amount.) The benefit is permanently reduced if drawn before the 65th birthday.

An individual may not receive two benefits simultaneously—that is, as a retired worker and as a spouse or surviving spouse. For example, if a wife or widow is eligible for a benefit on her own wage record and for a higher benefit based on her husband's record, she receives an amount equal to the larger benefit.

Ordinarily a widow loses her social security rights as a survivor when she remarries. Remarriage of a widow after age 60, however, does not affect entitlement. **1983 amendment: allows the continuation of benefits for surviving divorced spouses upon remarriage if that marriage takes place after the age of first eligibility for benefits;**

and the continuation of benefits for disabled widows and widowers and disabled surviving divorced spouses upon remarriage if that marriage takes place after age 50 and after the onset of disability.

Private Pension Plans

Half of the full-time private work force in the United States—approximately 30 million workers—was covered by private pension plans in 1971.[18] The plans vary widely with respect to benefit formulas and retirement age.

Until 1974, when the Congress enacted the Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA), there was no systematic Federal regulation of most aspects of private pension arrangements. ERISA protects employee benefits by setting minimum standards for participation in private pension plans and for vesting—obtaining a nonforfeitable right to a retirement benefit even though an employee may leave a job before retirement age. ERISA also provides for reporting and disclosure of information and sets minimum funding standards for private plans.

Current Issues Related to Women—Women are less likely than men to be covered by private pension plans. This is due to the types of jobs women hold. Women are concentrated in low-wage occupations and in smaller and nonunionized industries, which are the least likely to provide pension coverage. In 1979 a study funded by the U.S. Departments of Labor and Health and Human Services found that among full-time wage and salary workers of age 16 and over in private industry, workers in establishments with 500 or more employees were almost 2½ times as likely to have pension coverage as workers in establishments with fewer than 100 employees. More than 4 out of every 10 working women (compared with more than 3 out of 10 working men) who were not covered by a pension plan were employed by small non-unionized retail trade and service industry establishments.[19]

Even when women work for an employer who has a pension plan, they often are not covered because they fail to meet the age and service requirements of the plan. ERISA provides that a pension plan's age and service requirements generally may not deny or postpone eligibility for participation after an employee reaches age 25 and has 1 year of service (or age 25 and 3 years of service if vesting is full and immediate). Women's past employment patterns indicate 20- to 24-year-old women have the highest labor force participation rate (68.3 percent in 1978), and that by age 25 a large number drop out of the labor force for child rearing. Women who follow this pattern would not be covered in most private pension plans.[20]

In addition, employees may be excluded from participation in a pension plan if they do not work 1,000 hours a year. Women are far more likely than men to be part-time workers, largely because of child rearing and other home responsibilities.

If women do become eligible to participate in a pension plan, they often do not become entitled to benefits because they fail to meet the plan's vesting requirements—in most cases, 10 years of employment with no breaks in service or only short breaks. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in January 1981 only 17.0 percent of employed women had worked 10 or more years in their current job. The median number of years in the current job was 2.5 for women compared with 4.0 for men. For ages 45 to 54, the median number of years on the current job was 5.9 for women compared with 11.0 for men. Women in older age groups, on the average, still failed to meet vesting requirements of 10 years of service. Among women aged 55 to 64 years, the median number of years on the job was 9.1 and for women 65 and older it was 10.0.[21]

Furthermore, ERISA permits years of service before age 22 to be disregarded for vesting purposes. In the case of a woman employee who worked for the same employer from age 18 until 31, and then quit for a period of years to raise a family, the woman would have no vested benefit if the pension plan counted service from age 22 and required 10 years of service for vesting. Although she had worked 13 years for one employer, only 9 of those years could be counted toward vesting, leaving her 1 year short of the required minimum.

ERISA's vesting rules have been criticized by women for allowing the pension system to rely financially on the forfeiture of benefits from short-term employees, who are more likely to be women, to subsidize benefits for long-term employees, who are more likely to be men.[22]

Overall, the absence of pension plans in many occupations and industries where women are clustered and the ERISA standards for pension plans leave a great many women without pension rights—despite the fact that at retirement age many women without pensions have worked at least as long as, or only slightly less than, their male counterparts.

As spouses of participants in private pension plans, older homemakers who are financially dependent upon a spouse often find protection is lacking. Federal law requires that pension plans providing benefits in the form

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[18] *Private Retirement Plan Coverage Patterns of Full-time Employees*, 1980. U.S. Department of Labor, Pension and Welfare Benefit Programs. Also see "Labor Department Releases Study on Workers Covered by Pensions." News Release, USDL No. 80-555, September 5, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Pension and Welfare Benefit Programs.

[19] "Labor Department Releases Study on Workers Covered by Pensions," *ibid.*

[20] *Women and Private Pension Plans*, Helene A. Benson, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor, Pension and Welfare Benefit Programs.

[21] "Job Tenure of Workers in January 1981," Francis V. Horvath, *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1982.

[22] *Women and Private Pension Plans*, *op. cit.*

of an annuity must also provide for a qualified joint and survivor annuity. However, the participant has the right to reject this annuity without notifying or getting the consent of the spouse. Thus, a surviving spouse of a retiree, usually a wife, may expect a benefit that is not forthcoming. In any case, if a plan participant dies even one day short of reaching retirement age, the survivor may be left without benefits.

Generally, divorced spouses have no protection under private pension plans. The plans are not required to provide that any of the pension earned by a retiree during marriage be paid to a divorced spouse. The plans also are not required to provide a survivor annuity for a divorced spouse. A divorcee's right to part of the spouse's pension arises only in States where property acquired during marriage is divided by law and where pensions are considered to be property.

Women's Contribution to Pension Plans—Because of statistics which indicate that the average woman lives longer than the average man, insurers incorporated into actuarial tables a separate rate system for women and men. The result was that some employer retirement and pension plans required women to pay higher contributions than the men paid in order that both sexes could receive equal monthly benefits.

This practice was at issue in *Los Angeles Department of Water & Power v. Manhart*, 435 U.S. 702 (1978). The Court held in *Manhart* that requiring women to pay higher contributions to pensions than men are required to do violates title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Although women as a class live longer than men, and thereby draw annuity benefits for longer periods, the Court voted that the characteristics of a class may or may not be those of an individual, and that under title VII the *individual's* characteristics must govern in hiring, compensation, and in other terms and conditions of employment. A consistent line of cases in the United States courts of appeals and district courts in four circuits has upheld the principle that men and women who are similarly situated must be paid equal retirement benefits; most recently, for example, *Retired Public Employees Association of California v. State of California*, 677 F.2d 733 (9th Cir. 1982).

Basic Provisions of ERISA

ERISA was enacted in 1974 after years of effort to provide protection for workers who often, after years of accepting a lower wage in order to defer some of their compensation to finance a pension, found themselves without any retirement funds when plans were terminated with insufficient assets to pay earned benefits. ERISA created the Pension Benefit Guaranty Corporation (PBGC), financed by a per capita premium from covered plans, to protect workers and retirees against loss of benefits because of insufficient assets. The PBGC is governed by a Board of Directors consisting of the Secretaries of Labor, Commerce, and Treasury.

The formation and maintenance of pension programs, whether by employers or through collective bargaining, is strictly voluntary. Furthermore, ERISA does not set benefit levels. It does set standards for adequate financing, prudent management of fund assets, and dissemination of information about the plans, and it prohibits discharging a worker in order to avoid payment of a pension benefit.

There are in general two types of private pension plans: defined benefit and defined contribution. About one-fifth of the plans, covering about 60 percent of all plan participants, are defined benefit plans. These plans usually gear benefits to years of service and either to earnings or a stated dollar amount, and are insured by the PBGC. Defined contribution plans are profit sharing, stock bonus, or money purchase arrangements where the employer contributes an agreed percentage of wages (or profits) to the worker's individual account. The eventual benefit depends upon the total contributions and investment earnings in the intervening years. These plans, by their nature, are fully funded.

Pension fund assets are usually managed by bank trust departments, investment management firms, or life insurance companies.

Although most plans are single employer plans, industries such as coal mining, construction, trucking, and retail food have multi-employer retirement plans in which several unrelated companies participate under terms of their union contracts. While participants in single employer plans have been protected by PBGC's termination insurance program under ERISA since 1974, Congress four times postponed the effective date of mandatory coverage of multi-employer plans. However, the Multiemployer Pension Plan Amendments Act of 1980 was enacted and, among other things, provided for mandatory coverage by the PBGC of multi-employer plans.

ERISA standards include the following:

- *Participation*—If a pension plan bases eligibility for participation on age and service, participation may not be denied or postponed on these grounds beyond the time an employee reaches age 25 and completes 1 year of service (or age 25 and 3 years if the plan provides full and immediate vesting). Pension plans of tax-exempt educational institutions that provide for full and immediate vesting may require 1 year of service and age 30. Generally, a year of service is defined as 1,000 hours of employment during a 12-month period.[23] Plans such as profit sharing, stock bonus, or money purchase

[23] This definition opens participation to many part-time or seasonal employees. There are also circumstances where employees with less than 1,000 hours of service must be deemed to have completed a year of service.

plans that provide for defined contributions cannot deny participation because an employee begins employment late in life. A defined benefit plan may exclude a person who begins employment within 5 years of the plan's normal retirement age. Once minimum age and service requirements are met, participation must begin at the start of the next plan year or 6 months after the requirements are met, whichever is earlier.

- *Vesting*—Any accrued benefit earned by plan participants from the participants' own contributions, if any, must be fully and immediately vested. Accrued benefits based on *employer* contributions must be vested at least as fast as one of the following schedules: 100 percent after 10 years of service, with no vesting prior to completion of 10 years of service (cliff vesting); 25 percent after 5 years of service, with 5 percent annual increases for the next 5 years and 10 percent annual increases thereafter (graded vesting); or 50 percent after 5 years when the sum of the participant's age and years of service equals 45, with 10 percent increases in each of the next 5 years; 50 percent and an additional 10 percent for each additional year of service for any participant who has completed 10 years of service (modified rule of 45 vesting).

Thus, under any of the options, a participant must be at least 50 percent vested after 10 years of service, and 100 percent vested after 15 years, regardless of age.

Breaks in Service—ERISA does not permit plans to recognize as a "break in service" breaks that are shorter than 1 year. ERISA permits plans (other than those using the elapsed time method of creating service) to designate as a "1-year break in service" a 12-month period during which a participant has not completed more than 500 hours of service.

The effect of a 1-year break in service depends on the type of plan, the vesting status of the participant's accrued benefits, and the length of the break compared with the length of service that is counted for purposes of vesting before the break. For example, if an employee has a 1-year break in service and later "returns to work covered by the plan," the plan can require the employee to complete a year of service before it takes into account the years of service before the break. An employee "returns to work covered by the plan" by completing a year of service in employment covered by the plan after the end of a 1-year break in service or a series of 1-year breaks in service. If the benefits the employee earned before the break are fully vested, the pre- and post-break service must then be added for all purposes. For nonvested and partially vested benefits, the rules on adding pre- and post-break service vary, depending on the type of plan and the number of years of break.[24]

Portability—A participant who receives a lump sum payout upon leaving a job before retirement or upon termination of a plan can avoid current taxes by depositing the funds in an individual retirement account (see Individual Retirement Plans below) if certain conditions are met. This sum can, either later or immediately, be transferred to a new employer's tax-qualified pension plan, if the plan permits it.

Survivor Protection—Most retirement plans that provide benefits in the form of an annuity (that is, income for a specified period of time or for life) must provide a joint and survivor annuity at normal retirement age. The survivor annuity must be at least one-half of the annuity payable to the participant while he or she was living.

There are several requirements that a plan may impose (but is not required by ERISA to impose) on a participant in providing a spouse with a survivor annuity.

First, in plans which do not provide benefits before the normal retirement age stated in the plan (usually age 65), the plan is required to provide the joint and survivor annuity only to a participant who either attains or retires at or after the plan's normal retirement age. If a participant in such a plan dies before reaching the plan's normal retirement age, ERISA does not require the plan to provide the surviving spouse with a survivor annuity. The plan may provide in this case that the participant's vested benefits based on employer contributions are forfeited.

Second, for plans that provide for payment of benefits before the plan's normal retirement age (that is, plans that provide for early retirement benefits), ERISA does not require that the plan provide the joint and survivor annuity until the employee is within 10 years of normal retirement age or reaches early retirement age, whichever is *later*.

Third, plans are allowed to provide that a survivor annuity is not payable unless the participant and the spouse have been married to each other for at least 1 year on both the annuity starting date and the date of the participant's death.

Any participant may elect in writing *not* to receive benefits in the form of a qualified joint and survivor annuity unless the plan provides that a qualified joint and survivor annuity is the only form of benefit payable under the plan for married participants. ERISA also permits plans to allow that *part* of a benefit may be taken in a form other than a qualified joint and survivor annuity.

ERISA provides that, unless the employee elects in writing not to receive benefits in the form of a joint and survivor annuity, the joint and survivor annuity must be paid automatically to the survivor if the participant

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[24] For a more detailed discussion of the protection that ERISA provides against losing pension benefits because of an interruption in employment or because of failure to complete a sufficient number of hours of service, see *What You Should Know About the Pension and Welfare Law: A Guide to the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974*, 1978, U.S. Department of Labor, Pension and Welfare Benefit Programs.

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meets any of the following conditions before her or his death:

- The participant begins to receive payments under the plan after attaining the plan's normal retirement age.
- The participant dies after attaining the plan's normal retirement age while in the active service of the employer maintaining the plan.
- In the case of a plan that provides for the payment of benefits before normal retirement age, the participant begins to receive payments under the plan on or after the date the plan is required to provide the joint and survivor annuity (that is, upon or after the later of the plan's early retirement age or 10 years before the plan's normal retirement age).
- The participant separates from service on or after the date of the plan's normal retirement age or, in the case of a plan that provides for payment of benefits before normal retirement age, on or after the date the plan is required to provide the joint and survivor option and the participant dies before beginning to receive benefits.

To summarize the provisions for survivor annuities, ERISA does not guarantee a survivor annuity to all widows and widowers of employees. It does not require a survivor annuity for widows or widowers of participants who die before the date the joint and survivor annuity must be provided. It does not provide for a survivor annuity for spouses of employees who reject the joint and survivor annuity. It does not provide for a survivor annuity for spouses of participants who are already retired or deceased before the effective date of the joint and survivor provisions. It does not provide for a survivor annuity for spouses of participants who ceased to be active participants before the effective date of the joint and survivor provisions. Finally, the joint and survivor provisions do not apply to employees who participate in plans that are exempt from the ERISA joint and survivor provisions.

The Self-Employed and Employees Without Pension Coverage—ERISA allows self-employed persons and nonincorporated businesses to establish larger pension plans than they could under the Self-Employed Individuals Tax Retirement Act of 1962 (also known as the Keogh Act or H.R. 10). The Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 (ERTA) has further raised the deductible limits. In addition, ERISA permitted employees not covered by a pension plan (whether Keogh or corporate) to deduct from their current Federal taxes limited amounts of their earned income which are set aside for retirement in individual retirement accounts, annuities, or bonds (IRA's). ERTA changed this to allow anyone with earned income to establish individual retirement plans. Thus, effective with tax years beginning after December 31, 1981 (i.e., in general as of January 1, 1982), all individuals with earned income are eligible to establish IRA's.

Keogh Plans—Self-employed individuals have a choice between setting up for themselves either a Keogh plan or an individual retirement plan, which is described below. However, if they have employees they must include them in any Keogh plan established. If they set up an IRA for themselves they do not have to include their employees (those employees would be eligible to establish their own IRA's).

Self-employed individuals are permitted to put a portion of their earned income each year, on a tax-deferred basis, into a fund that can earn tax-free income until it starts paying out at retirement. ERISA set the contribution limits for Keogh plans at 15 percent of earned income or $7,500, whichever is less. ERTA has further raised the limit to $15,000, effective with tax years beginning after December 31, 1981.

Despite these percentage limitations, a self-employed individual with adjusted gross income of $15,000 or less from all sources may contribute the lesser of $750 or 100 percent of earned income. Whether adjusted gross income exceeds $15,000 is determined separately for each individual without regard to community property laws or any deduction from gross income.

In order to put aside money for retirement under a Keogh plan, an individual must do the same for his or her full-time employees who have 3 or more years of continuous service. A full-time employee is one with at least 1,000 hours of service during the year. The contributions for the employees must be at least equal to the percentage of contributions for the self-employed person. The contributions are fully vested immediately.

Persons who are self-employed on a part-time basis can set up a Keogh plan with such additional earnings even if already covered by a pension plan on a regular job. Persons who are employees in a secondary job, and not self-employed, are not eligible to establish a Keogh plan for the secondary job, although their employers could establish plans for them.

The Internal Revenue Service (IRS) administers the standards for eligibility and for establishing and maintaining a Keogh plan. For information on Keogh plans, contact the nearest IRS District Director's Office, listed in the telephone directory under "U.S. Government, Internal Revenue Service."

Individual Retirement Plans (IRA's).—For tax years beginning before January 1, 1982, the law allowed employed individuals not currently covered by a pension plan (other than social security and railroad retirement plans) to set up their own tax-deferred individual retirement plans (IRA's). Under those provisions persons were eligible for an IRA if employed and not an "active participant" during the year, in a tax-qualified corporate plan, tax-deferred annuity program, Keogh plan, or government retirement plan. Eligible individuals were permitted to put aside as much as 15 percent of compensation into an IRA—up to a limit of $1,500 a year—and take a

tax deduction for the amount. ERTA changed this to permit anyone with earned income, whether or not an active participant, to establish an IRA, and raised the limit to $2,000.

Employees eligible for an IRA can also contribute for a nonemployed spouse. Prior to ERTA, the contribution maximum was 15 percent of compensation up to a top of $1,750. Equal amounts—up to $875 each—had to be deposited into separate accounts for the employee and the nonemployed spouse or into one account with subaccounts for each. In a divorce the homemaker kept her or his share of the money. If both spouses were employed and eligible, each could set aside 15 percent of compensation, up to $1,500 each year, in separate IRA's. ERTA raised the limit on spousal (husband and wife) IRA's to $2,250, and removed the requirement that contributions to a spousal IRA be equally divided between husband and wife. ERTA also raised the limit to $2,000 each on contributions to separate IRA's where both spouses are employed.

The Internal Revenue Service (IRS) administers the standards for eligibility and for establishing and maintaining an IRA. For information on eligibility for IRA's or how to start or maintain one, contact the nearest IRS District Director's Office, listed in the telephone directory under "U.S. Government, Internal Revenue Service."

Chapter VI
LAWS RELATING TO FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT

Federal employees for the most part are covered by laws different from those that cover private sector employees. However, in the area of employment, amendments to title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, and the Fair Labor Standards Act have extended coverage to Federal workers. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 prohibits discrimination on the basis of handicap in Federal employment.

The most significant legislation affecting employment in recent years is the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, which provided for a basic restructuring of the Federal civil service system, and included a program for the recruitment and hiring of minorities and women. Legislation to promote part-time employment opportunities and flexible working arrangements also may have positive effects on women's employment options in Federal service.

Women's opportunities in military service were improved through a number of changes in regulations affecting enlistment qualifications and duty assignments which removed some sex discriminatory provisions. Women are still prohibited from combat duty assignments.

Data have been verified as of July 1, 1982, unless otherwise noted.

Nondiscrimination Requirements

The Civil Service Act of 1883 permitted women to compete under the merit system, and the Classification Act of 1923 established uniform salary ranges. For many years, however, an 1870 law which allowed agencies "at their discretion" to employ females for higher clerkships led to requests for men only or women only in filling civil service positions. In 1962 the U.S. Attorney General ruled that this law was invalid. In 1965 an Executive order barred discrimination by Federal agencies or Federal contractors on the basis of race, color, religion, or national origin, and a 1967 amendment to the order prohibited sex discrimination in the Federal civil service. In addition, the Federal Women's Program was initiated in 1967.

Executive Order 11478, issued August 8, 1969, strengthened the equal employment opportunity program for Federal employees, and directed the head of each executive department and agency to establish and maintain an affirmative action program for all civilian employees and applicants for employment. The provisions of the Executive order were given legislative support in 1972 by an amendment to title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Section 717(a) of title VII provides that all personnel actions affecting employees or applicants for employment in executive agencies of the Federal Government shall be made free from any discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

Under the President's Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978, enforcement of Executive Order 11478 and Section 717 of title VII was transferred from the Civil Service Commission to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). This was done to ensure that Federal employees have the same rights and remedies as workers in private employment and State and local government, and that Federal agencies meet the same standards required of other employers. Executive Order 12106 (which authorized the transfer of Executive Order 11478 functions to EEOC) also authorized the Commission to issue rules, regulations, orders, and instructions under the Reorganization Plan and to request information that it needs from Federal agencies.

EEOC has issued detailed instructions for Federal agency affirmative action programs, which require goals and timetables and specific actions to remove barriers to equal employment opportunity. The Commission also has issued affirmative action instructions for hiring and placement of handicapped individuals.

The Office of Personnel Management also has issued a government wide policy statement that sexual harassment is a prohibited personnel practice. See section on Sexual Harassment Guidelines in chapter V for a definition of sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment is included in EEOC's definition of sex discrimination. EEOC requires each Federal agency to include steps in its affirmative action plans which will

ensure that its employees are informed that coercive sexual advances in the workplace are prohibited, and that specific steps, set out in the affirmative action plan, be taken to free the work environment of sexual intimidation.

The Equal Pay Act, which prohibits pay discrimination because of sex, became applicable to Federal employees, except for military personnel, with the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) amendments of 1974. (See the Equal Pay Act section of chapter V.)

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) was amended, effective May 1, 1974, to include a section covering Federal employment (see the ADEA section of chapter V). This does not apply to aliens employed by the Federal Government outside the limits of the United States. Since July 1, 1979, EEOC has had responsibility for enforcement of the Equal Pay and Age Discrimination in Employment Acts.

Under the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) is required to implement a minority recruitment program that is designed to eliminate underrepresentation of minorities in the various categories of civil service employment. On April 13, 1979, OPM issued final regulations implementing a Federal equal opportunity recruitment program for minorities and women. This program, which affects both external and internal recruitment, has been integrated into the affirmative action programs which Federal agencies are required to develop and submit for review by EEOC.

Minimum Wage and Overtime Coverage

The 1974 FLSA amendments extended coverage of the act's provisions to Federal employees who were not covered earlier (see the FLSA section of chapter V). Since the lowest Federal pay categories were already above the FLSA minimum wage, the major impact of the extended coverage relates to overtime pay.

Civil Service Reform Act of 1978

The Civil Service Reform Act called for basic restructuring of the Federal civil service system. The legislation, which was proposed by the President and passed by both the House and the Senate with large vote margins, was intended to improve methods for hiring, training, and rewarding Federal employees, and for firing employees whose work merits this action.

The Congress also approved the President's Reorganization Plan No. 2, which it received along with the legislative civil service reform proposals. The reorganization plan created three agencies to manage different aspects of the reform legislation. This plan and most of the provisions of the legislation took effect in January 1980.

The Civil Service Reform Act provides the following:

- The basic merit principles that are to govern the Federal personnel system, including equal pay for work of equal value.
- New systems for appraising employee work performance which are to be the basis for decisions to train, reward, assign, promote, demote, retrain, or remove employees (for reasons other than misconduct).
- New procedures for adverse actions and appeals whereby such actions may be appealed to a Merit Systems Protection Board created by Reorganization Plan No. 2, or through a grievance arbitration procedure.
- The establishment of a Senior Executive Service (SES), to include managers in the top levels of Government, GS–16 through Executive Level IV or their equivalents. There is to be a 10 percent governmentwide ceiling on the number of SES executives who may be noncareer, about the same percentage as when the reform legislation was enacted.
- A merit pay system in which the pay increases of managers and supervisors in grades GS–13 through GS–15 will be directly linked to their performance rather than to their length of service. These employees will not receive automatic within-grade increases, as they once did, and they will receive only half of the cost-of-living pay increases given other Federal employees. However, they will be eligible each year for cash awards for meritorious performance.
- Authorization for training employees facing separation because of reductions in force to prepare these employees for placement in another Federal agency.
- Authorization for early retirement for employees 50 years of age with 20 years of service, or those with 25 years of service regardless of age, when such employees are faced with major reorganizations, transfers of function, or reductions in force.
- The elimination, on October 1, 1980, of veterans' preference for nondisabled military retirees who are at or above the rank of major or its equivalent. Additional rights and benefits are provided for veterans with service-connected disabilities of 30 percent or more. (See the section on veterans' preference in this chapter for a discussion of the veterans' preference issue.)
- A requirement that Federal agencies must notify local offices of the U.S.-State Employment Service about each of their vacant positions in competitive service or in the Senior Executive Service for which they are seeking applications from persons outside the Federal Government.
- Certain collective bargaining rights and obligations for Federal employees, their representatives, and Federal agencies. Labor-management relations

procedures are set out to make labor relations in Federal service more like labor relations in the private sector while still meeting the special needs of the Government.

- The right of Federal employees, individually or collectively, to petition the Congress or a Member of the Congress, or to furnish information to either House of the Congress or its Members is not to be denied.
- Federal agencies are authorized to adopt the merit system standards of the Office of Personnel Management as a requirement in grants to State and local governments.

Reorganization Plan No. 2

This plan, which was approved by the Congress when the Civil Service Reform Act was passed, abolished the U.S. Civil Service Commission and replaced it with a Merit Systems Protection Board and an Office of Personnel Management. This was done to separate two responsibilities of the Commission—the protection of employee rights, and the promotion of efficient personnel management policy. The plan also established a Federal Labor Relations Authority to oversee Federal labor-management policies and to provide leadership in administering those policies.

Apportionment of Federal Jobs

Public Law 95-228, signed February 10, 1978, repealed a section of Federal law which authorized the apportionment of appointments to Federal jobs in the District of Columbia. Previously, the jobs were apportioned among the States, the District of Columbia, and territories and possessions of the United States on the basis of population.

A 1977 report by the General Accounting Office, an oversight agency of the Congress, pointed out that the apportionment did not apply to veterans and that the combination of apportionment and the exemption of veterans meant that well-qualified nonveterans from States exceeding their quotas had little chance of obtaining Federal employment in Washington, D.C. "The fact that our exempted veteran population is mostly male has meant that the burden of apportionment falls most heavily on qualified women applicants," the report said.[1]

Citizenship Requirements for Federal Jobs

Executive Order 11935 of 1976 states that persons who are not U.S. citizens may not take competitive Federal civil service examinations nor be appointed to the competitive Federal civil service, except when necessary to "promote the efficiency of the service in specific cases or for temporary appointments." The order followed a ruling by the U.S. Supreme Court, *Hampton v. Mow Sun Wong*, 426 U.S. 88 (1976), that the general Federal prohibition against the employment of aliens, in the absence of a Congressional or Presidential mandate forbidding the appointment of aliens, violated the due process clause of the 5th amendment to the Constitution.

Appointment of Employees Returned From Overseas

Executive Order 12362, signed May 12, 1982, makes it easier for certain overseas employees to apply for Federal jobs upon their return to the United States. In the past, spouses who have accompanied a civilian or uniformed Federal employee assigned to an overseas post of duty have often had difficulty in establishing their own work records. Under the new order, the spouse or other family member, who is a United States citizen and who has completed 24 months of fully satisfactory Federal service overseas, need not, upon return, go through the process of becoming a new applicant for Federal employment. A person wishing to exercise eligibility for the simplified procedure must do so within 2 years of returning to the United States and must meet qualification requirements for the job for which she or he applies. The Office of Personnel Management will issue regulations about implementation of the order.

Veterans' Preference

Under the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944, nondisabled veterans of wartime or peacetime service in the Armed Forces who pass examinations for Federal employment have 5 points added to their score. Disabled veterans have 10 points added. The law also specifies that a Federal agency must consider for employment only the three highest scoring applicants. As a result of the 5-point lifetime preference and the "rule of three," women and minorities and other qualified nonveteran candidates often face insuperable obstacles in their quest for Federal jobs. The problem is most severe at middle and upper levels of management, where the salaries, functions and status of jobs often attract large numbers of well qualified candidates. Furthermore, in any agency staff cutback (this is called a Reduction in Force, or RIF), veterans may "bump" nonveterans—that is, displace nonveterans in their jobs—even if the nonveterans have far greater seniority.

The Veterans' Education and Employment Act of 1976 (Public Law 94-502) narrowed the eligibility requirements for the 5-point preference. The act provides

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[1] *Conflicting Congressional Policies: Veterans' Preferences and Apportionment vs. Equal Employment Opportunity*, Comptroller General of the United States, FPCD 77-61, 1977, General Accounting Office.

that persons entering military service after October 14, 1976, are not eligible for the preference unless they served in a war or campaign. The full impact of this law will not be felt for some time because large numbers of veterans in Federal employment were in military service before October 14, 1976, and still enjoy the benefits provided by the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944.

In a 1977 Report to the Congress, the Comptroller General of the United States said that the Veterans' Education and Employment Act should have a positive impact on Federal job opportunities for women in the future. However, he asked the Congress to reconsider whether preference accorded those serving before October 14, 1976, was appropriate because it contradicts equal employment opportunity laws and policies. The report said that the adverse effects of veterans' preference were demonstrated by the displacement and loss of ranking of women on Federal job registers from which eligible applicants are referred for consideration for vacancies; by the additional qualifications needed by nonveteran women to compensate for the 5-point preference that is awarded a nondisabled veteran; and by the lack of women on some certificates of eligibles referred to Federal agencies.

Proposals for civil service reform urged that the 5-point preference for nondisabled veterans be limited to the 10 years after a veteran's discharge, rather than be a lifetime preference; that the number of applicants considered by an agency be expanded to seven; that restrictions be placed on the absolute preference given to veterans in RIF's; and that veterans' preference be eliminated for retired military officers of field grade rank or above and be available to other military personnel who retired after at least 20 years of service only in the 3 years after their retirement. The reduction or elimination of veterans' preference was vigorously opposed by major veterans' organizations and by large majorities in Congress. The only proposal relating to veterans' preference that was enacted by the Congress was elimination of preference for nondisabled military retirees at or above the rank of major or its equivalent.[2]

An attempt to deal with veterans' preference in the courts also failed. In *Personnel Administrator of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts v. Feeney*, 99 S. Ct. 2282 (1979), the U.S. Supreme Court held that Massachusetts had not discriminated against women in violation of the equal protection clause of the 14th amendment by granting an "absolute lifetime" preference to veterans and surviving spouses and surviving parents of veterans in State civil service employment. While the Court acknowledged that the Massachusetts statute had granted a "substantial edge" to veterans, the Court said that the appellee had failed to demonstrate that the law in any way reflects a purpose to discriminate on the basis of sex. "Purposeful discrimination," the Court stated, quoting the Court in *Swann v. Board of Education*, 402 U.S. 116 (1971), is "the condition that offends the Constitution."

Friend of the Court briefs were filed by several Federal agencies. While not defending the Massachusetts law per se, the U.S. Department of Justice brief defended the constitutionality of legislation that affords a preference to veterans. Subsequently, four Federal agencies—the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, the Office of Personnel Management, the Department of Defense, and the Department of Labor—filed a supplementary brief which argued that Federal veterans' preference legislation would not be jeopardized if the Massachusetts law were struck down. A coalition of women's groups supported the challenge to the Massachusetts statute.

Alternative Work Schedules

Legislation (Public Law 95-437) to promote permanent part-time employment at all grade levels of the Federal government was enacted in 1978. The law defined part-time employees as those working 16 to 32 hours a week. It required Federal agencies to set annual goals and timetables for establishing or converting positions for part-time career employment. It also provided that, as of October 1, 1980, part-time employees be counted as fractions of positions for personnel ceiling purposes.

Another law (Public Law 95-390) called on the Federal government to experiment with flexible work schedules, including 4-day weeks and other compressed work schedules. These experiments, which were to occur over a 3-year period, began in the spring of 1979, and were intended to determine whether and in what situations such schedules could be used successfully and permanently by Federal agencies.

In September 1981 an interim report from the Office of Personnel Management concluded that the alternative work schedule types used in the experiment were successful in most situations from the perspective of both the experimenting organizations and individuals. In July 1982, Congress enacted legislation which permits but does not require Federal agencies to use flexible and compressed employee work schedules on a nonexperimental basis for 3 years.

Occupational Safety and Health

On February 26, 1980, the President signed Executive Order 12196 concerning occupational safety and health programs for Federal employees. The order became effective July 1, 1980, superseding Executive Order 11807 of September 28, 1974. It applies to all agencies of the executive branch except military personnel and uniquely military equipment, systems, and operations.

[2] *Congressional Record*, March 3, 1978, H 1661-1663.

The order requires the head of each agency to furnish to employees workplaces and conditions free from recognized hazards that are causing or are likely to cause death or serious physical harm; operate an occupational safety and health program in accordance with the requirements of the order; comply with all standards issued under Section 6 of the Occupational Safety and Health Act; assure prompt abatement of unsafe or unhealthy working conditions; and establish procedures to assure that no employee is subject to restraint, interference, coercion, discrimination or reprisal for filing a report of an unsafe or unhealthy working condition, or other participation in agency occupational safety and health program activities. It also authorizes agency heads to establish occupational safety and health committees and continues the Federal Advisory Council on Occupational Safety and Health, established pursuant to Executive Order 11612.

Military Service

The number of women in the Armed Forces has increased steadily since 1972, when a Department of Defense task force was set up to plan for greater use of women in military service. The purpose was to offset possible shortages of male recruits in the all-volunteer military services.[3]

In recent years, women have been assigned to a wider variety of occupations in the Armed Forces (see chapter II for a discussion of the number of women in military service and their occupations). However, there are still restrictions against the use of women in most combat-related specialties, as noted below under headings for the various service branches. Women also are not assigned to many noncombat jobs that are held for rotation purposes for men in combat skill assignments.

The Defense Department has taken the position that, where such restrictions are written into law, these laws be repealed and the Secretaries of the military branches should be allowed to set policy for the assignment of women in their respective branches, with review by the Secretary of Defense.[4] In support of this recommendation, the Department made the following points:

- Since 1948, when the restrictions on women were enacted, military personnel policies, the role of women in society, and the nature of warfare have changed dramatically.
- Large numbers of women, properly trained and selected, have the physical and mental ability to serve in the entire range of military classifications.
- Prohibiting Navy women in seagoing ratings from their fair share of sea duty results in excessive sea duty for men and is inconsistent policy between the Navy and the Coast Guard in the assignment of women to ships (see section of this chapter on the Coast Guard).
- Legislation has permitted female commissioned Air Force officers who are judge advocates, chaplains, or in medical fields to serve aboard aircraft engaged in combat missions, while other female officers and enlisted women cannot do so.
- Costs would not be prohibitive if these policies were changed. For example, ship modifications to allow assignment of women to ships are estimated to cost approximately $10,300,000 over a 5-year period.

In 1980 the President proposed that registration for a military draft be resumed under a plan that would include women as well as men. In addition, the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower testified in favor of draft registration for women. However, this proposal was not supported by the Congress. The new Selective Service law provides for registration of men only. In July 1980, the U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania ruled that registration for males only violated the 5th amendment, 49 LW 2066, July 29, 1980. On December 1, 1980 the U.S. Supreme Court agreed to review this decision.[5]

Among the initiatives of the Department of Defense to improve the status of women in the Armed Forces are the following:

- It is anticipated that women will increase from 6 percent of the total military enlisted force in 1977 to about 9 percent in 1985.
- The military services have successfully integrated women into the military academies (see chapter II).
- The Department has supported and responded to recommendations of the Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS).
- The Department has conducted scientific studies to assess the feasibility of expanded use of women in military service and of ways to facilitate this expansion. For example, two completed studies on the effectiveness of women in Army units under simulated combat conditions showed no lessening in the readiness of units, even when women constituted up to 35 percent of the units' total strength. Studies being conducted on Navy ships with male and female crews have, to date, found no lessening of readiness. Other studies include defining physical

[3] *Women and the Military*, Martin Binkin and Shirley J. Bach, 1977, The Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C.

[4] These views were presented to the Congress on February 14, 1978, by the Deputy Secretary of Defense in reply to a mandate under Public Law 95-79 that the Defense Department submit recommendations on expanding job classifications to which women might be assigned and on any changes in law needed to bring this about. This information is drawn from *Women in the Armed Forces*, Ellen C. Collier, Issue Brief No. IB79045, 1979; updated 1980, Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service.

[5] *In Rostker v. Goldberg*, on June 25, 1981, the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the registration plan.

standards for jobs and identifying criteria for material and equipment that are suitable for use by both sexes.

- By examining its policies that are not based on law, the Department has opened jobs previously closed to women. For example, women are now serving in the Air Force in Minuteman missile crews, piloting and navigating training and support aircraft, and serving in aircrew positions as in-flight refueling operators and loadmasters.
- The Department established the Department of Defense Civilian/Military Service Review Board. This board considered the services of certain groups of nonmilitary women who supported military operations in World Wars I and II, Korea, and Vietnam to determine if the services rendered should be considered as active military duty under laws administered by the Veterans Administration. The Board ruled to extend the benefits conveyed by these laws to several groups, among them the approximately 800 women who served in the civilian Women Air Force Service Pilots (WASPS) and to the many U.S. female citizens who served the military in World War I as telephone operators in the European Theater.
- The military services have issued policy directives stating that sexual harassment in the military is unacceptable behavior. In addition, the Department has developed a definition of sexual harassment that applies specifically to its military and civilian personnel. It has also called on the Secretaries of the military Departments to have appropriate training programs and a monitoring and reporting system on sexual harassment. (For a discussion of Federal laws and regulations dealing with sexual harassment generally, see section of chapter V on sexual harassment.)

Greater participation of women in the military has also been pursued by individuals and organizations outside the Federal Government through lawsuits. For example, in 1976, six women challenged as unconstitutional Army and Air Force regulations which generally disqualified for enlistment unmarried parents of minor children. The case has not yet been decided. *(Mack v. Rumsfeld,* No. 76-22 (W.D. N.Y., filed January 20, 1976.)

The present status of women in the military services is discussed below under each branch of the service.

Army

There is no legislative prohibition against the assignment of women to combat-related specialties in the Army, as there is for the Navy and the Air Force. However, Army policy imposes similar restrictions. Women are prohibited in 38 active Army military occupational specialties as well as in any infantry, armor, cannon field artillery, combat engineer, and low altitude air defense artillery unit of battalion/squadron or smaller size regardless of the occupational specialty.[8]

At the end of August 1982, the Army announced that the closing of 23 additional specialties out of a total of 351 specialties was being recommended because they are found in the main battle area or they involve routine engagement in direct combat. The Army has also determined the physical demands for every entry level enlisted specialty and developed a physical capacity test battery, which will be validated for reliability and job relatedness before being administered to all male and female enlistees.

Enlistment Standards—In February 1979 the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) filed a class action lawsuit in the U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia, *Beatty et al. v. Brown,* Civil Action No. 790512, alleging that the Army's different enlistment standards for men and women constituted discrimination for reasons of sex. On May 18, 1979, the Army announced that, as of October 1, 1979, its enlistment requirements would be identical for men and women. On June 28, the court dismissed the case without prejudice.

Currently, all women are required to be high school diploma graduates to be eligible to enlist in the Active Army but male General Educational Development (GED) certificate holders are eligible to enlist.

Navy

On July 27, 1978, in a suit brought by six officers and enlisted women in the Navy, the U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia held that section 6015 of title 10 of the U.S. Code, which barred Navy women from assignments aboard ships other than hospital ships or transports, was unconstitutional, *Owens v. Brown,* 455 F. Supp. 291 (1978). The court noted that, while the basic purpose of 10 U.S.C. 6015—to increase the combat effectiveness of Navy ships—was unquestionably a government objective of the highest order, the defendants had failed to show that military preparedness was the objective. The law, the court said, was related more to traditional ways of thinking about women. The court ruled that the sweep of the statute was too broad and violated the equal protection rights embodied in the 5th amendment because it banned an entire sex from a wide range of career opportunities. However, the court upheld the authority of the Congress and the Navy to assign women on the basis of military need and effectiveness. In this connection, the court said that:

> Nothing in this decision is meant to shape the contours of Navy policy concerning the utilization of female personnel. . . Those are essentially military decisions that are entrusted

[8] *Women in the Armed Forces, op. cit.*

to executive authorities and the Court expresses no view on what their outcome should be.

Following this court ruling, the Congress modified 10 U.S.C. 6015 to permit women to be assigned to permanent duty on noncombat vessels and temporary duty aboard combat vessels. A repair ship, the USS Vulcan, made history late in 1978 when it became the first Navy ship with female sailors permanently assigned aboard. In 1979 the Vulcan sailed to the Mediterranean with its women crew members aboard. By October 1980 there were more than 90 female officers and 560 enlisted women on 24 Navy ships. By 1985 the Navy plans to have 190 female officers and 5,000 enlisted women aboard 49 ships.

Air Force

Section 8549 of title 10 of the U.S. Code prohibits the assignment of women to aircraft that are assigned combat missions. On the basis of this combat restriction, 4 out of 230 Air Force specialties are closed to women: defense gunner (B-52); para rescue recovery; radio operator/maintenance driver (this occupation is located with Army frontline units, where Army women are excluded); and security specialist (persons in this occupation guard planes loaded with nuclear weapons).[7]

Marine Corps

Limitations on the recruitment and assignment of women in the Marine Corps are established by policy rather than by statute. According to a Brookings Institution study, these limitations on women "are indirectly influenced by the Congressional prohibition against women serving aboard naval vessels [with combat-related assignments]."[8]

The primary mission of the Corps is amphibious warfare, and the bulk of Marine units are periodically deployed aboard amphibious ships, this study noted. Although all but four fields have been opened to women Marines—infantry, field artillery, tank and amphibian tractor crew, and air crew--the employment of women in these and other fields is still limited by the policy of not placing women in units with combat-related assignments.

Coast Guard

The U.S. Coast Guard, U.S. Department of Transportation, announced on August 11, 1975, that, for the first time, women would be admitted to the Coast Guard Academy.

In order to make the Coast Guard's nondiscrimination policies a statutory requirement, the Congress enacted Public Law 94-572, signed October 21, 1976. It provides that all appointments to the Coast Guard Academy be made without regard to the sex, race, color, or the religious beliefs of applicants. The law directed the Secretary of Transportation to take necessary action to ensure that "female individuals" are eligible for appointment and admission to the Academy, and that relevant standards for appointment, admission, training, graduation, and commissioning of women be the same as those for men except for minimum essential adjustments required because of physiological differences between males and females.

On August 30, 1978, the U.S. Coast Guard announced the following policy decisions:

- All female and male graduates of the Coast Guard Academy will be assigned to sea duty for their initial tours as commissioned officers.
- Crews made up of both sexes may be assigned to any Coast Guard unit, afloat or ashore, that can provide reasonable privacy for each sex in berthing and personal hygiene.
- Numerical ceilings based on sex were removed from recruiting goals.
- Administrative restrictions based on sex were removed in relation to training, advancement, and specific job assignments. (Women previously were excluded from the fire control technician, gunner's mate, and sonar technician ratings.)
- All officer career fields and all enlisted ratings were opened to military personnel of either sex.

In April 1979 a woman became commander of a U.S. Coast Guard cutter for the first time.

Federal Retirement Systems

The Federal Government, the nation's largest employer, operates 38 major retirement programs covering over 5 million employees. These plans pay over $15 billion per year to about 2.6 million retirees and survivors. In general, Federal plans provide for beneficiaries more generously than private plans. Almost all Federal plans are indexed for inflation in contrast to private plans, which usually do not provide cost-of-living adjustments.[9]

The Civil Service Retirement System (CSR), by far the largest of the Federal civilian programs, covers over 90 percent of civilian employees. Some of the smaller and more specific Federal retirement systems cover personnel of the Foreign Service, Federal Reserve Board, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and Central Intelligence

[7] *Women in the Armed Forces*, op. cit.
[8] *Women and the Military*, op. cit.
[9] *Social Security and Pensions: Programs of Equity and Security*, a section of the special study on Economic Change, the Joint Economic Committee of the U.S. Congress, 1980.

Agency. While participants in a majority of the smaller plans have social security coverage, personnel in the Civil Service Retirement System do not contribute to social security, nor do they receive social security benefits unless they were in other covered jobs before, during, or after their Federal employment.

This discussion of Federal retirement systems is limited generally to the Civil Service Retirement System and military retirement.

Civil Service Retirement System

As of September 30, 1981, this system covered 2.7 million current employees and paid benefits to over 1.7 million retirees and survivors. Participants in the system and the Federal Government contribute to the retirement fund.

Of particular interest here to women is a law (Public Law 95-366 of 1978) which provides that civil service retirement payments or future payments which would otherwise be made to an annuitant or future annuitant shall be paid, in whole or in part, by the Federal Government to another person such as a former spouse if this is expressly provided for by the terms of a court order in connection with a divorce, annulment, or legal separation. The need for such legislation was stated in the Senate report accompanying the bill, which said that the Federal retirement system "fails to provide economic protection to the former spouse of a Federal employee. Such a failure, in many cases, leaves the dependent spouse with no direct retirement benefits despite many years of working, without compensation, managing a home, raising children, and contributing time and effort to the joint marital enterprise."[10]

The law as enacted was substituted during markup in the House Subcommittee on Compensation and Employee Benefits for another bill, which would have entitled a former spouse of a Federal employee, who had been married to that employee for 20 years, to a portion of the employee's retirement annuity, independent of any court decree, property settlement, or other court action.

As provided by Public Law 95-317, signed on July 10, 1978, Federal annuitants may elect, within one year of remarriage, to reduce their annuity in order to provide a survivor's annuity to a new spouse. For annuitants who survive a spouse, the annuity reduction is eliminated until the annuitant chooses to designate another qualified individual for a survivor's annuity.

In a comparable action Congress passed the Foreign Service Act of 1980 (Public Law 96-465) providing for pro-rata pensions and survivor benefits for former spouses of Foreign Service employees.

The U.S. Supreme Court has held, in *United States v. Clark*, 100 S. Ct. 895 (1980), that a recognized natural child—that is, an illegitimate child—of a Federal employee who is covered by the Civil Service Retirement Act is entitled to survivors' benefits when the child lived with the deceased employee in a "regular parent-child relationship," regardless of whether the child was doing so at the time of the annuitant's death. Lower Federal courts have uniformly held that the "lived with" requirement violates the equal protection provision of the 5th amendment, since there is no such requirement with regard to legitimate children. However, the U.S. Supreme Court stated in its decision that it is well settled that the Court will not pass on the constitutionality of an act of Congress if a construction of the statute is possible without raising constitutional questions.

Mandatory Retirement

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act Amendments of 1978, Public Law 95-256, eliminate an upper age limit in employment for most civilian Federal employees, effective September 30, 1978. The amendments do not affect certain Federal employees whose retirement is required or otherwise authorized by statute. The right to be treated on the basis of ability to perform a job and the inadequacy of income in the retirement years were cited as factors demonstrating need for the amendments.[11]

Military Retirement

The military services retirement system differs considerably from most civilian employee systems. It is one of the most generous programs in the country, partly because pensions are an integral part of the military's unique total compensation package.[12] Pension benefits are awarded after 20 years of service regardless of age. The 20-year retiree receives 50 percent of final basic pay while the 30-year retiree receives 75 percent. (Basic pay constitutes 75 to 80 percent of regular military compensation.) Members of the Armed Forces have been covered under social security since 1956 and have paid taxes on their earnings. In addition, since 1978, for every $300 of basic pay, the military employee receives a social security wage credit of an additional $100 (up to a maximum of $1,200 per year) to reflect allowances, such as housing, over and above basic pay. It is estimated that military retirees receive almost 100 percent of after tax preretirement earnings from a combination of military pensions plus social security. In fiscal year 1981, the military system paid $12.1 billion to 1.1 million non-

[10] *Amending Title 5, United States Code*, Senate Report No. 95-1084, August 10, 1978.

[11] *Amending the Age Discrimination in Employment Act Amendments of 1977*, Senate Report No. 95-493, October 12, 1977.

[12] *Social Security and Pensions: Programs of Equity and Security*, op. cit.

disability retirees; $1.3 billion to 146,000 disability retirees; and $329 million to survivors.

On June 26, 1981, the Supreme Court ruled that Federal law precludes a State court from dividing military nondisability retirement pay as part of a divorce settlement in community property States. *McCarty v. McCarty*, 101 S. Ct. 2728 (1981).

On September 8, 1982, the President signed the Defense Authorization Act (PL 97-252), Title X of which incorporated the Former Spouses Protection Amendment. The act will allow State courts to consider military retirement benefits as marital property and thus subject to property division in divorce settlements. The act also authorizes continued medical care and continued use of commissary privileges for unremarried former spouses who have been married to a military member for at least 20 years.

Chapter VII
STATE LABOR LAWS OF SPECIAL INTEREST TO WOMEN

Today all of the 50 States, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico have laws affecting some aspect of women's employment. Most of these laws developed from legislation which States first began to enact as early as the mid-nineteenth century in an effort to protect women and children from exploitation in the labor market.

This chapter briefly describes the development of State labor laws of special interest to women (since 1960), changes in those laws during the last two decades, and the present status of the laws on a State-by-State basis. The minimum wage section of the chapter illustrates in particular how standards once established only for women came to protect all workers.

A State-by-State table is provided in this chapter for ready reference. Table VII-2 shows selected State laws which affect women workers in private industry. The data, verified as of January 1, 1982, unless otherwise noted, are subject to change as States continue to amend their statutes. The latest information on a particular State can be obtained from its labor department, human rights commission, or attorney general.

Early Developments

The movement to enact labor standards for women began during the middle and late years of the last century. At first workers sought legislation with provisions for men and women, but they lacked the power to get such legislation enacted. However, they were able to gain protective legislation for women and children.

The term "protective laws" came to be used in connection with a broad range of labor standards for working women which provided a minimum floor for women's wages and set limits on long hours and other harsh working conditions.

In her study of the development of these laws, Ronnie Ratner says that during the period when the first of these laws was enacted, the courts were especially hostile to any interference by government with the freedom of employers and workers to negotiate labor contracts.[1] But, because women and children were not regarded as the legal equals of adult males, they were not subjected to this laissez faire doctrine. Workers successfully argued that women and children needed government protection because of their subordinate legal status. Male textile employees in New England, where there were early efforts to gain reforms in hours of work, accepted this compromise of protection with limited coverage in the hope that reforms in hours of work and other working conditions would eventually be extended to men because women and men often worked in interrelated jobs.

Some of the sex-specific laws that were enacted restricted women from working at night, working in certain occupations, and working during specified periods before and after childbirth. Several of the laws incorporated plant facility standards for women such as seats, dressing rooms, and lunchrooms. By 1960 all States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico had protective legislation for women workers.

Ratner notes that sex-specific laws were a precedent for sex-neutral labor standards, as some early workers had anticipated. Government intervention in the economy on behalf of women and children was an entering wedge which later was used both to obtain legislative protection on behalf of most workers in our modern industrial society, and to withstand challenges to the constitutionality of such legislation.

An example of the major change that has occurred in labor standards legislation during this century is shown in the development of State minimum wage laws (charts VII-1 and VII-2). The first State minimum wage legislation was a 1912 "recommendatory" law in Massachusetts, which could be enforced only by making investiga-

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[1] *The Paradox of Protection: Maximum Hours in the United States*, by Ronnie Steinberg Ratner, International Labour Review, Vol. 119, No. 2, March-April, 1980. See also *Growth of Labor Law in the United States*, 1967, U.S. Department of Labor.

Chart VII-1

Early State Minimum Wage Laws.*

Coverage: men and women

*Shows date of first enactment of State minimum wage laws passed through 1938, the year the Federal minimum wage law (Fair Labor Standards Act) was enacted for men and women. Application of these early State laws was restricted to women and minors, except in Oklahoma, where coverage of men was declared unconstitutional in 1939 on the basis of technical defect.

tions and printing the names of offenders in the newspapers. For many years, State minimum wage legislation was almost exclusively for the protection of women and minors, and did much to raise their extremely low pay in manufacturing, trade, and service industries. By November 1980, most State minimum wage legislation generally provided equal coverage for women and men.

The Shift to Equal Status

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (FLSA) marked a turning point in labor standards legislation by establishing sex-free standards for a minimum wage in employment covered by the act and premium pay for overtime after 40 hours a week (see FLSA section of chapter VI). However, most women workers were not covered by the FLSA as originally enacted because women held jobs in such occupations as retail sales, laundry, clerical, and private household work, which were excluded from FLSA coverage. Thus State laws remained for many women workers their only protection against substandard wages and excessive hours.

In the early 1960's major national attention was focused on the need to eliminate discrimination based on race, and Congress enacted a comprehensive law, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (see title VII, chapter V, on Federal laws). Title VII of the Act prohibits discrimination in private employment based on sex, race, color, religion, or national origin. The law permits exceptions where sex is a "bona fide occupational qualification" reasonably necessary to the normal operation of a business. Some women's groups and unions urged the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which administers title VII, to permit continued use of protective legislation for women until the States had time to assess which of these laws should be repealed or extended. In December 1965 the EEOC issued sex discrimination guidelines that approved use of the restrictive State laws under the bona fide occupational qualification proviso of title VII, provided that the employer acted in good faith and that the law protected rather than discriminated against women.

However, increasing numbers of women began to file complaints because State laws were being used by employers and unions to exclude them from jobs. The EEOC invited comment on the question of protection versus equal opportunity at public hearings in 1967, at which most of the testimony emphasized the discriminatory effect of the State statutes.

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Chart VII-2

Minimum wage laws in effect as of January 1, 1982.

Coverage: men and women, except as noted.

In 1968 the EEOC filed a brief in support of a woman who charged that her rights under title VII were violated when an employer relied on California's restrictions on hours and weightlifting to deny her a job as agent telegrapher. The lower court ruling in favor of the complainant was upheld by the 9th Circuit Court of Appeals in *Rosenfeld v. Southern Pacific Co.*, 444 F 2d 1219 (1971), an opinion that addressed the sweeping proscription of strenuous jobs for women as follows:

> The premise of Title VII, the wisdom of which is not in question here, is that women are now to be on equal footing with men. The footing is not equal if a male employee may be appointed to a particular position on a showing that he is physically qualified, but a female employee is denied an opportunity to demonstrate personal physical qualification. Equality of footing is established only if employees otherwise entitled to the position, whether male or female, are excluded only upon a showing of individual incapacity.

Because limits on the hours worked were the most common State restriction affecting women, title VII's effect on these laws was the most dramatic—as courts, attorneys general, and legislatures nullified or repealed the laws. Occupational restrictions for women also came under increased attack. For example, in 1971 the California Supreme Court struck down a prohibition against women tending bar (except when they were licensees, wives of licensees, or sole shareholders of a corporation holding the license) with the following observations:

> Laws which disabled women from full participation in the political, business and economic arenas are often characterized as "protective" and beneficial. . . . The pedestal upon which women have been placed has all too often, upon closer inspection, been revealed as a cage. *Sail'er Inn, Inc., v. Kirby*, 5 Cal. 3d 1.

As for State laws that conferred a benefit such as minimum wage on women but not on men, EEOC guidelines state that employers violate title VII if they do not provide the same benefits for male employees, or if they refuse to hire women in order to avoid payment of minimum wages or overtime pay.

In recent years, the FLSA has been amended several times to greatly broaden its coverage. Most States that had provisions for overtime pay for women only have

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amended their laws to extend protection to men and to reduce the number of hours for which straight time may be paid. Moreover, States that have enacted overtime provisions for the first time have made them applicable to both men and women.

With respect to such sex-oriented State laws as those requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities, such as seats, for women only: There have been both losses for women when such provisions were part of nullified or repealed maximum hours laws and gains for men when coverage of the laws has been extended to men and through the application of State fair employment practices (FEP) laws which prohibit sex discrimination in "all conditions of employment."

Minimum Wages

Forty-one States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws for adults with minimum rates currently in effect. Only one State excludes men from coverage, in contrast with 1960, when most of the 35 minimum wage laws did not apply to men.

State minimum wage laws are of two basic types: those that contain a minimum in the law itself (a statutory rate) and those that authorize an administrator or wage board to set minimum rates by occupation or industry. Several States combine the two types and have both a statutory minimum for most employment and provisions for wage orders to establish rates and/or working conditions for certain occupations or industries. Only the legislature can change statutory rates, but wage orders can be modified by the administrator or wage board. Under both types of minimum wage law, lower rates are generally payable to learners and apprentices, handicapped persons, and minors.

Statutory State minimum wage rates for experienced adults varied widely in mid-1982—from a low of $1.25 an hour in Georgia to a high of $3.85 in Alaska. Some States provide for automatic upward adjustment if the Federal minimum wage rate is increased. When workers are covered by both the Federal minimum wage law (the Fair Labor Standards Act, or FLSA) and a State law, they are entitled to the higher rate.

There is also considerable variation in the coverage of State minimum wage laws. Some exempt such groups as employers with less than a specified number of workers; nonprofit, religious, and charitable institutions; workers in specified occupations; and workers covered by the FLSA. On the other hand, State minimum wage laws often benefit workers in certain local trade and small service establishments not covered by the Federal law. Moreover, many State minimum wage laws protect State and/or local government employees whose coverage under the FLSA has been found unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court (see the FLSA section in chapter VI).

Historical Record

As was noted above, for many years State minimum wage legislation was designed almost exclusively to protect women and minors, and did much to raise their extremely low pay in manufacturing, trade, and service industries. During the early years, most States chose the wage board method of establishing rates.

Progress in the establishment of minimum wage laws was interrupted by a 1923 decision of the U.S. Supreme Court declaring a District of Columbia minimum wage law unconstitutional on the ground that it deprived liberty of contract in personal employment, *Adkins v. Children's Hospital*, 261 U.S. 525. A struggle ensued. Several State minimum wage laws were declared unconstitutional by State or Federal courts, and others became inoperative from lack of wage board activity or appropriations. No new minimum wage laws were enacted for 10 years.

Then, despite the Supreme Court decision in *Adkins*, the depression years of the 1930's brought a revival of interest in minimum wage legislation. As States sought new formulations to achieve the minimum wage objective, these, too, were struck down. The issue was not resolved until 1937, when the Supreme Court expressly reversed its *Adkins* decision and upheld the constitutionality of the minimum wage law in the State of Washington, *West Coast Hotel v. Parrish*, 300 U.S. 379. At this point, laws that had been held unconstitutional were reexamined. Some were declared valid, while others were enacted in a different form. Several States enacted minimum wage legislation for the first time. Of the 29 jurisdictions that had at some time enacted minimum wage legislation, 22 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico had minimum wage laws in effect in 1938 when the Congress enacted the Fair Labor Standards Act, which law set a minimum rate for women and men and required premium pay for overtime.

Many States have since passed minimum wage laws for the first time and others extended and strengthened their early laws. The following are characteristic modifications:

- Extension of coverage to men; to small establishments; to additional occupations—for example, to private household workers, farm laborers, and employees receiving gratuities.
- Establishment of a statutory rate in addition to or instead of wage order provisions.
- Strengthening of enforcement.
- Increase of the statutory rate, sometimes exceeding the Federal rate.
- Provision for increasing the State minimum rate whenever the Federal minimum increases, in the same amount and on the same date.
- Addition of premium pay for overtime.

Minimum Wage Jurisdictions

The 43 jurisdictions with minimum wage laws for adults are:

Alaska	Maine	Oklahoma
Arkansas	Maryland	Oregon
California	Massachusetts	Pennsylvania
Colorado	Michigan	Puerto Rico
Connecticut	Minnesota	Rhode Island
Delaware	Montana	South Dakota
District of Columbia	Nebraska	Texas
	Nevada	Utah
Georgia	New Hampshire	Vermont
Hawaii	New Jersey	Virginia
Idaho	New Mexico	Washington
Illinois	New York	West Virginia
Indiana	North Carolina	Wisconsin
Kansas	North Dakota	Wyoming
Kentucky	Ohio	

States that do not have minimum wage laws for adults are Alabama, Arizona (the Arizona law on minimum wages for women and minors was amended in 1973 to cover minors only), Florida, Iowa, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

Coverage of Private Household Workers

Before the Federal minimum wage law was extended to some private household workers in 1974, these workers were protected only under a few State laws. Most workers in this overwhelmingly female occupation have been excluded from State minimum wage coverage or are covered only if they work in households with large staffs.

Among jurisdictions with a statutory minimum wage which is applicable to employers of one or more persons, all but Maryland and Massachusetts have special exclusions for certain types of household workers. For example, the District of Columbia, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, and South Dakota exclude babysitters and/or companions from their "one-or-more" coverage. Other exclusions are: in Connecticut, babysitters and private household workers who are covered by the Federal minimum wage law; in Montana, babysitters and persons employed directly by the head of a household to care for dependent children; in Nevada, casual babysitters and live-in employees; in New Jersey, part-time employees who are primarily engaged in the care and tending of children in the employer's home; and in Puerto Rico, all private household workers, except for chauffeurs.

Michigan covers employers of two or more persons without exclusion for household work. Kentucky covers employers of two or more regularly employed household workers but excludes babysitters and companions. Arkansas covers employers of five or more persons, but excludes persons who provide services that are not performed in the course of the employing unit's trade or business. Indiana covers employers of four or more persons who perform services in the course of the employing unit's trade or business. Nebraska covers employers of four or more persons, but excludes babysitters. West Virginia covers employers with six or more employees "in any one separate, distinct and permanent establishment."

California, the District of Columbia, and Wisconsin cover household workers by wage order or regulation. However, the California order is not applicable to "personal attendants." The Wisconsin regulations exclude casual employment, which is defined as employment that is irregular or intermittent and for not more than 15 hours a week, and babysitters are excluded by the District of Columbia.

All private household workers are specifically excluded from the minimum wage coverage of the following 20 States:

Alaska	Maine	Rhode Island
Delaware	New Hampshire	Texas
Georgia	New Mexico	Vermont
Hawaii	North Carolina	Virginia
Idaho	Oklahoma	Washington
Illinois	Oregon	Wyoming
Kansas	Pennsylvania	

Coverage of State and Local Government Employees

The U.S. Supreme Court has made it clear, in *National League of Cities v. Usery*, 426 U.S. 833 (1976), that the operation of schools, hospitals, fire departments, police departments, sanitation services, public health services, and parks and recreation services is a traditional function of States and their political subdivisions. For this reason, they are outside the power of the Congress with respect to minimum wage coverage (see the Fair Labor Standards Act, or FLSA, section in chapter VI). The Department of Labor has since determined that the operation of libraries and museums also is a traditional State and local function. Public employees who are not protected by the FLSA are therefore dependent on State minimum wage laws.

Of the jurisdictions that have a statutory minimum wage for private employment in general, the following 10 States also specifically *include* both State and local government employees:

Connecticut	Massachusetts	Pennsylvania
Illinois	Michigan	West Virginia
Indiana	North Carolina	
Maine	Ohio	

The following 10 States specifically *exclude* all or almost all State and local government employees from minimum wage coverage:

Alaska	Nevada	Puerto Rico
Hawaii	New Mexico	Wyoming
Idaho	New York	
Nebraska	Oregon	

In addition, Arkansas excludes all public employment except for public schools and school districts (covered only since 1979); Vermont excludes State employment; the District of Columbia excludes its own employees; and Minnesota excludes several categories of public employment, including police and fire protection services.

A number of State laws with statutory minimum wage rates are silent in their coverage, exemption, and definition sections in regard to public employees. However, in practice, eight of these States—Georgia, Kansas, Montana, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Virginia, and Washington—do cover State government employees. New Hampshire and Kentucky enforce a minimum wage with respect to local, but not State, governments. Delaware, Maryland, and New Jersey do not cover public employees. In Texas, where enforcement of the $1.40 hourly minimum wage rate must be through an employee suit in the county where an underpayment occurred, the status of coverage for local government employees is uncertain. (The rates for all State personnel classifications in Texas are set in annual appropriations laws.)

There is no coverage of public employees in States that set the minimum rate by methods other than statute only—California, Colorado, North Dakota, Utah, and Wisconsin. Some States that exclude public employees in their minimum wage law cover these employees in a separate law.

Overtime

In 1960, 34 of the jurisdictions which restricted weekly and/or daily working hours for women in at least some industries also authorized exceptions on a seasonal basis or in the event of an emergency. Ten of these jurisdictions linked the exceptions with a requirement for premium pay for excess hours worked. In addition, three jurisdictions without a maximum hours law had a minimum wage law requiring premium rates for time worked beyond specified hours. Nine of the 13 jurisdictions that required premium pay for overtime restricted coverage to women.

The Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, which applies to both men and women workers, generally requires payment of 1½ times an employee's regular rate for hours worked in excess of 40 a week, but does not require premium pay for overtime on a daily basis (see FLSA section in chapter V). Now 31 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws in effect which require premium pay for overtime; nearly all of the overtime requirements are in minimum wage laws. Only five jurisdictions have a standard that includes premium pay for excess hours per day. One of these, Wyoming, has the only enforced statute which applies only to women. However, the administrative agency in Wyoming uses the State fair employment practices and equal pay laws to extend coverage to male workers. The number of jurisdictions that require premium overtime pay for men has increased almost eightfold over the last two decades. On the other hand, women in two States have lost premium pay for overtime because of the repeal of maximum hours laws.

In some States, certain categories of workers who are covered under minimum wage provisions are excluded from the requirement of premium pay for overtime. However, as in the case of minimum wages, overtime protection under State laws is sometimes broader than under Federal law.

There are many variations in the language of State overtime provisions. New York requires payment of 1½ times "the basic minimum hourly rate" for overtime work. Puerto Rico requires double the rate agreed upon for regular hours (except that employers subject to the Federal minimum wage law are required generally to pay only time and a half for hours in excess of 8 a day). Most other jurisdictions set the standard in terms of "time and a half" or 1½ times the employee's "regular" or "usual" rate or "rate at which employed." California wage orders not only require 1½ times the regular rate for more than 40 hours a week, but also generally require 1½ times the regular rate for all hours in excess of 8 and through 12 in a workday and for the first 8 hours worked on the seventh workday in a week, and require double time for additional hours. Some statutes, as in the case of Nevada, permit mutual agreement by employers and their employees on 10-hour day, 4-day workweeks.

The following list of jurisdictions with premium pay requirement in effect shows the hours after which premium pay is generally required (8/40 indicates an 8-hour day and/or a 40-hour week). Where a range of weekly hours is shown, variations exist for occupations or industries; some variations for single industries or for seasonal employment are not shown:

Alaska 8/40
Arkansas 40–48
California 8/40
Colorado 40
Connecticut 40
District of Columbia 40
Hawaii 40
Illinois 40–46
Kansas 46
Kentucky 40
Maine 40
Maryland 40–48
Massachusetts 40
Michigan 40
Minnesota 48
Montana 40
Nevada 8/40
New Hampshire 40
New Jersey 40
New Mexico 48
New York 40–44
North Carolina 45
North Dakota 40
Ohio 40
Oregon 40
Pennsylvania 40

Puerto Rico 8/40
Rhode Island 40
Vermont 40
Washington 40
West Virginia 40
Wisconsin 40–42
Wyoming 8/48*

* Applies to women only (see text).

Still "on the books," although ruled invalid by the State attorney general and an appeals court, is a Texas provision that applies to women only and that requires time and a half for each daily hour in excess of 9, provided the worker works more than 40 hours a week.

Equal Pay

In 1960, 20 States had laws applicable to private employment that prohibited discrimination based on sex in the rate of pay. Today, 37 States have equal pay provisions either in their minimum wage laws or in separate statutes. Moreover, another eight States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico prohibit pay discrimination based on sex in their fair employment practices or civil rights laws.

Historical Record

In 1919 Michigan and Montana became the first States to enact equal pay laws. Other States were slow to follow suit, although a number enacted such laws during World War II, when large numbers of women entered the labor force. By 1963, when the Congress passed the Federal Equal Pay Act, 22 States had equal pay laws and 2 States prohibited sex discrimination in their fair employment practices (FEP) laws. Since then, several States have enacted equal pay provisions and/or a broader FEP law. Kansas repealed its separate equal pay law in 1972, but included a specific equal pay provision when it enacted a minimum wage law in 1977.

Equal pay provisions usually are enforced by the State labor department or industrial commission. FEP statutes, often part of a broader human rights law, usually are administered by a State civil rights division or human relations commission.

Equal Pay Jurisdictions

States with equal pay laws which are applicable to most kinds of private employment are:

Arizona
Arkansas
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Florida
Georgia
Hawaii
Idaho
Illinois
Indiana
Kansas
Kentucky
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New York
North Dakota
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
South Dakota
Tennessee
Virginia
Washington
West Virginia
Wyoming

Jurisdictions that have no specific equal pay provision relating to private employment but that do prohibit pay discrimination based on sex in their FEP laws are:

Alaska
Delaware
District of Columbia
Iowa
New Mexico
Puerto Rico
South Carolina
Utah
Vermont
Wisconsin

Five States do not have an equal pay provision or an FEP law prohibiting sex discrimination in private employment; however, four of these States have acted in some way to eliminate such discrimination. The five States are:

Alabama
Louisiana
Mississippi
North Carolina
Texas

Occupational Safety and Health

Twenty-four States operate occupational safety and health plans approved under the provisions of the Federal Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970. The Federal act was created "to assure so far as possible every working man and woman in the Nation safe and healthful working conditions and to preserve our human resources."

The history of State legislation for the safety and health of workers dates back to the tragedies in hazardous industries in the 1800's and to the disastrous Triangle Shirtwaist Company fire in which 146 employees, mostly women, lost their lives in 1911. By 1970 every State had enacted some type of occupational safety or health safeguards for particular industries, and many went further to grant general rulemaking authority to the State labor department, board of health, or an independent agency. Prior to 1970 Federal legislation was limited to very few industries except for companies covered under Federal contract as provided by the Walsh-Healey Act.

Replacing this patchwork of State and Federal programs, the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 authorized a Federal plan which made provision for States at any time to assume responsibility for administration and enforcement of their own comparable laws. Federal funds are provided for up to 50 percent of the cost of enforcing approved State plans.

A State plan must be approved by the Secretary of Labor. Approval is forthcoming if the plan meets a

number of criteria under the Federal act and provides for a program that will be "at least as effective as" that of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) of the U.S. Department of Labor. However, OSHA continues discretionary enforcement within a State for at least 3 years after plan approval.

In some instances a State plan may be approved by the Secretary of Labor when it does not match all Federal requirements if assurances are given by the State that a program will be developed to full effectiveness within a maximum of 3 years from the date of approval. Some States have withdrawn their plans before or after approval.

Where no approved State plan is in effect, OSHA administers the Federal law. States retain the right to establish standards in areas where OSHA has set none. Table VII-1 shows the status of each State plan, as reported by OSHA's Office of State Plan Review and Evaluation.

Fair Employment Practices

In 1960 about half of the States had laws prohibiting employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, and national origin. None of these broad fair employment practices (FEP) laws mentioned sex. In 1961 Wisconsin was the first State to amend its FEP law to prohibit sex discrimination. Today, 42 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have broad FEP laws (or FEP sections in human rights laws) covering private employment. The laws vary considerably in their coverage and enforcement provisions. For example, many of these laws prohibit discrimination on the basis of age and some prohibit discrimination on the basis of handicap, marital status, and sexual orientation.

Sex Discrimination

All of the broad State FEP laws prohibit discrimination based on sex. Some of these laws provide greater coverage than is available under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VII, the major Federal Fair Employment Practices law, prohibits all public and private employers of 15 or more persons, labor unions with 15 or more members, public and private employment agencies, and joint labor-management committees with apprenticeship or other training programs from discriminating on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (see the title VII section of chapter V).

When a title VII complaint is filed in a jurisdiction with an FEP law authorizing a State or local agency to grant or seek relief from discrimination on a basis that is covered under title VII, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC is the Federal agency that administers title VII) must give the State or local agency an opportunity to remedy the alleged discrimination. The deferral period is 120 days if the agency has been in operation for less than a year, and is otherwise 60 days.

Major jurisdictions with laws prohibiting sex discrimination in private employment and the number of employees they require for coverage are shown below. Many of these jurisdictions also prohibit sex discrimination in public employment, either in the FEP law or in a separate law covering public employees.

Alaska-1
Arizona-15
California-5
Colorado-1
Connecticut-3
Delaware-4
District of Columbia-1
Florida-15
Hawaii-1
Idaho-10
Illinois-15
Indiana-6
Iowa-4
Kansas-4
Kentucky-8
Maine-1
Maryland-15
Massachusetts-6
Michigan-1
Minnesota-1
Missouri-6
Montana-1
Nebraska-15
Nevada-15
New Hampshire-6
New Jersey-1
New Mexico-4
New York-4
North Dakota-15
Ohio-4
Oklahoma-15
Oregon-1
Pennsylvania-4
Puerto Rico-1
Rhode Island-4
South Carolina-15
South Dakota-1
Tennessee-8
Utah-25
Vermont-1
Washington-8
West Virginia-12
Wisconsin-1
Wyoming-2

As of September 3, 1982, enforcement agencies in the above jurisdictions were approved for deferral by the EEOC, that is, they were authorized to process charges of discrimination filed with the EEOC. In addition, the EEOC deferred to the Virgin Islands Department of Labor with respect to discrimination in private and public employment; to the Georgia Office of Fair Employment Practices with respect to State employment; and to the North Carolina State Personnel Commission for several types of public employees (but excluding employees of public schools and of the offices of the Governor and Lieutenant Governor).

Agencies administering FEP ordinances in a number of local jurisdictions also were given deferral status by the EEOC. Some of these jurisdictions are in States that lack a broad FEP law; EEOC has given these jurisdictions deferral status on the basis of effective local laws

Table VII-1

Status of State Plans, October 5, 1982

Active States

Approved Plans			Plans Submitted—States Notified of Additional Requirements Necessary for Approval		
States	Date of Approval	Date Certified[1]	States	Enabling Leg. Yes	Enabling Leg. No
S. Carolina[2,3]	11/30/72	8/03/76	Alabama[2]		X
Oregon[2,3,4]	12/22/72	9/15/82	Am. Samoa[5]	X	
Utah[2,3]	1/04/73	11/19/76	Arkansas[2]		X
Washington[2,4]	1/19/73	1/26/82	Delaware[2]		X
N. Carolina[2,3]	1/26/73	10/05/76	Dist. of Col.[2]		X
California[2,3,4]	4/24/73	8/12/77	Florida[2]		X
Minnesota[2,3]	5/29/73	9/28/76	Guam[5]	X	
Maryland[2,3]	6/28/73	2/15/80	Idaho		X
Tennessee[2,3]	6/29/73	5/03/78	Massachusetts[2]		X
Iowa[2,3]	7/12/73	9/14/76	Missouri[2]		X
Kentucky[2]	7/23/73	2/08/80	Oklahoma[2]		X
Alaska[2,3,4]	7/31/73	9/09/77	Texas[2]		X
Virgin Islands[2]	8/31/73	9/22/81	West Virginia[2]		X
Michigan[2,3,4]	9/24/73	1/16/81			
Vermont[2,3]	10/01/73	3/04/77			
Hawaii[2,3,4]	12/28/73	4/26/78			
Nevada[2]	12/28/73	8/13/81			
Indiana[2]	2/25/74	9/24/81			
Wyoming[2,3]	4/25/74	12/30/80			
Arizona[2]	10/29/74	9/18/81			
New Mexico[2]	12/04/75				
Virginia[2,3]	9/23/76				
Puerto Rico[2]	8/15/77	9/07/82			
Connecticut[2,4]	10/02/78				
TOTAL	24[6]	21	13	2	11

Inactive States

Plans Withdrawn by States Before approval		Plans Withdrawn by States After approval		No Plans Ever Submitted
State	Date	State	Date	State
Pennsylvania	3/21/73	N. Dakota[2]	7/23/73	Ohio[2]
Georgia[2]	4/27/73	Montana[2]	6/27/74	Louisiana
New Hampshire	10/14/73	New Jersey[2]	3/31/75	Kansas[2]
Mississippi[2]	1/23/75	New York[2]	6/30/75	Nebraska[2]
Maine[2]	6/24/75	Illinois[2]	6/30/75	S. Dakota
Rhode Island[2]	10/5/77	Wisconsin[2]	6/30/75	Trust Territories[5]
		Colorado[2]	6/30/78	
		Connecticut[2,4]	9/30/78	
TOTALS	6		8	6

[1] Effective date of notice that the State has successfully completed its developmental commitments (21 States)
[2] States with operational agreements (23 States)
[3] States with 7(C)(1) consultation agreements (40 States)
[4] States with different standards (6 States)
[5] States with 7 (C)(1) enforcement agreements (3 States)
[6] Enforcement in public sector only as of 10/1/78 (1 State)

prohibiting sex discrimination in all conditions of employment. The local jurisdictions authorized to process charges of discrimination filed with the EEOC are:

Alaska:	Anchorage
Florida:	Broward County
	Clearwater
	Dade County
	Jacksonville
	Orlando
	St. Petersburg
Georgia:	Augusta/Richmond County
Illinois:	Bloomington
Indiana:	Bloomington
	East Chicago
	Evansville
	Fort Wayne
	Gary
	South Bend
Kansas:	Wichita
Kentucky:	Lexington-Fayette
	Louisville-Jefferson County
Maryland:	Baltimore
	Howard County
	Montgomery County
	Prince George's County
	Rockville
Minnesota:	Minneapolis
	St. Paul
Missouri:	St. Louis
Nebraska:	Lincoln
	Omaha
New York:	New York City
North Carolina	New Hanover County
Ohio:	Springfield
Pennsylvania:	Allentown
	Philadelphia
	Pittsburgh
	York City
South Dakota:	Sioux Falls
Texas:	Austin
	Corpus Christi
	Fort Worth
Virginia:	Alexandria
	Fairfax County
Washington:	Seattle
	Tacoma
West Virginia:	Charleston
	Huntington
	Wheeling
Wisconsin:	Madison

States that lack a broad law which prohibits discrimination in private employment and provides an effective enforcement mechanism are:

Alabama	Louisiana	Texas
Arkansas	Mississippi	Virginia
Georgia	North Carolina	

Three of these States—Arkansas, Georgia, and Virginia—do have laws prohibiting *discrimination in pay* based on sex. In addition, private workers in some areas of North Carolina, Texas, and Virginia are protected by effective laws or ordinances prohibiting sex discrimination in all conditions of employment, as was indicated above in the list of local deferral jurisdictions. Public workers in Georgia, North Carolina, and Texas are also protected against sex discrimination.

Although a 1977 North Carolina law declared it to be public policy that all persons have the right to seek and hold employment without discrimination based on race, religion, color, national origin, age, sex, or handicap, the law gave the State Human Relations Council only the authority to investigate and to attempt conciliation.

Under Virginia law, the State must adhere to a policy of equal employment for job applicants and employees of the State. The Director of Equal Opportunity and Employee Programs investigates complaints and recommends remedies. Enforcement and/or appeal of the director's decision is through the Governor. Mississippi bans sex discrimination in State employment, but there is no enforcement mechanism.

Age Discrimination

Age discrimination was not included in the State fair employment practices laws of 20 years ago. Now, 39 States and the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico have laws prohibiting age discrimination in private employment. These laws are of particular concern to women because many women enter or reenter the labor market—or shift from part-time to full-time

employment—after an extended period of major family responsibilities. Age limits for protected persons vary widely; however, several States have acted recently to make limits the same as those set by Federal law.

The Federal Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA), enacted in 1967 and last substantively amended in 1978, covers private employers of 20 or more workers and generally prohibits discrimination in employment for reasons of age against persons 40 to 70 years old.

State laws on age discrimination are important because, in most cases, coverage is very broad. Jurisdictions that prohibit age discrimination in private employment are listed below, together with the minimum number of employees required for coverage. (Some States provide protection against age discrimination in more than one law.) An asterisk indicates that age discrimination in at least some public employment also is prohibited by law or Executive order. (The Puerto Rico provision includes agencies and instrumentalities of the Commonwealth that are operated as private businesses or enterprises.)

*Alaska-1
*Arizona-15
*California-5
*Colorado-1
*Connecticut-3
*Delaware-4
*District of Columbia-1
*Florida-15
*Georgia-1
*Hawaii-1
*Idaho-10
*Illinois-15
*Indiana-1
*Iowa-4
Kentucky-8
Louisiana-20
*Maine-1
*Maryland-15
*Massachusetts-1
*Michigan-1
*Minnesota-1
*Montana-1
*Nebraska-25
*Nevada—15
*New Hampshire-6
*New Jersey-1
*New Mexico-4
*New York-4
North Dakota-1
*Ohio-1
*Oregon-1
*Pennsylvania-4
Puerto Rico-1
*Rhode Island-4
*South Carolina-15
*Tennessee-8
*Utah-25
*Vermont-1
*Washington-1
*West Virginia-12
*Wisconsin-1

In most of the above jurisdictions, age discrimination is part of a comprehensive fair employment practices (FEP) law covering all conditions of employment and administered by a civil rights commission or labor department with broad powers for conciliation and enforcement. The Louisiana law, however, covers employers of 20 or more persons but excludes State and local governments, as well as employers subject to the Federal law—in effect, covering no one. The Colorado law covers only discharge that is based solely upon age for individuals between 18 and 60 years old, and specifies no enforcement agency. The Georgia provision on age discrimination in private employment and the North Dakota law make it a misdemeanor to refuse to hire, employ, or license, or to bar or discharge any individual solely on the basis of age, but neither State has an enforcement agency.

As of January 1, 1982, the following States had no law in effect that prohibited age discrimination in *private* employment:

Alabama	Missouri	Texas
Arkansas	North Carolina	Virginia
Kansas	Oklahoma	Wyoming
Mississippi	South Dakota	

North Carolina has a law that adopts a statement of public policy against age discrimination in employment, but it authorizes a Human Relations Council only to investigate and attempt to conciliate charges. Under a separate provision of the North Carolina law, persons between the ages of 40 and 65 are entitled to equal opportunity in public employment. In Arkansas and Texas, there are statutes which also prohibit age discrimination in *public* employment, and Kansas, Oklahoma, and South Dakota prohibit age discrimination in State employment. Missouri has an affirmative action policy for State employment that includes nondiscrimination on the basis of age. Virginia has established an Equal Employment Opportunity Committee to monitor efforts to assure that employment practices of the State do not discriminate on the basis of age.

Meal Periods

In 1960, 25 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico required that meal periods be allowed for women employed in some or all industries. The periods varied from one-third of an hour to 1 hour. The meal period requirement applied to men in only four States. Today there are 19 jurisdictions with statutes, orders, or regulations setting meal period standards, and most of them apply to both women and men. The most common meal period requirement is for an uninterrupted period of at least 30 minutes.

The Federal wage and hour law does not require meal periods. However, workers covered by the law must be paid for any time less than 30 minutes that they are free from duty for the purpose of eating regular meals. Guidelines issued under title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act of 1964 state that where meal periods are required for women they must also be provided for men, unless precluded by business necessity. In the latter case, the employer must not provide meal periods for members of only one sex.

Jurisdictions that still have meal period requirements "on the books" which are applicable to women only are:

Arkansas	Pennsylvania
New Mexico	Utah

However, the Arkansas provision has been found to discriminate in favor of women on the sole basis of their

sex and to be in conflict with and preempted by the Federal Civil Rights Act. The Pennsylvania provision has been ruled to be repealed, by implication, by subsequent enactment of a State fair employment practices law. An Ohio provision was repealed effective July 21, 1982.

By implication, a Wyoming law which requires rest periods for certain women workers also requires lunch periods for those workers.

Jurisdictions with meal period requirements applicable to both women and men are:

California	Nebraska	Oregon
Colorado	Nevada	Puerto Rico
Illinois	New Hampshire	Rhode Island
Kentucky	New York	Washington
Massachusetts	North Dakota	

Rest Periods

In 1960, 12 States required rest periods (as distinct from meal periods and from full days of rest) for women workers in one or more industries. Today 10 States have rest period provisions, and more than half of the requirements apply to both women and men.

The Federal wage and hour law does *not* require rest periods or "breaks." Guidelines issued under title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act state that where rest periods are required for women they also shall be provided for men, unless precluded by business necessity. In this case, the employer may not provide rest periods for members of only one sex.

States that still have rest period requirements "on the books" for women only are:

Arkansas	Utah
Pennsylvania	Wyoming

However, the Arkansas provision has been found to discriminate in favor of women on the sole basis of their sex and to be in conflict with and preempted by the Federal Civil Rights Act. A ruling on the Pennsylvania provision by the State attorney general found that the subsequent enactment of the State Human Relations Act implied a repeal of the rest period requirement for women only.

The following States require rest periods for both women and men (generally, the required rest period is 10 minutes during each 4 hours of work) in at least some occupations or industries:

California	Kentucky	Oregon
Colorado	Nevada	Washington

Seat Requirements

A number of jurisdictions—through statutes, minimum wage orders, and other regulations—have established employment standards for women relating to plant facilities such as seats, lunchrooms, dressing rooms, restrooms, and toilet rooms. Only provisions requiring seats are included in this summary.

In 1960, 46 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico had employment standards relating to seating. All but one applied exclusively to women workers. As of January 1, 1982, a total of 22 jurisdictions have seat requirements.

In nine jurisdictions, the standard applies to both women and men:

California	Massachusetts	Oregon
District of Columbia	Montana	Utah
Florida	New Jersey	Wisconsin

The other 13 States have seating requirements for women only "still on the books." These States are:

Alabama	New Hampshire	Pennsylvania
Arkansas	New Mexico	Texas
Georgia	New York	West Virginia
Idaho	Oklahoma	Wyoming
Missouri		

The Missouri attorney general ruled in 1973 that employers must provide seats for men as well as women, or prove that business necessity precludes providing such seats and not provide them for any employee. The Pennsylvania attorney general has ruled that the repeal of the seating requirement was implied by the later enactment of the State Human Relations Act. The Texas provision for seats has been ruled invalid because it is inconsistent with the State constitution and Federal legislation. An Ohio provision was repealed effective July 21, 1982.

Employment Limitations

Total Hours[2]

In 1960, 40 States and the District of Columbia had laws which regulated, in one or more industries, the number of daily and/or weekly hours of employment for women. Three other States had regulations governing working hours that applied in whole or in part to both women and men. Thirty-four States permitted overtime in such situations as an emergency, following breakdown of equipment, to prevent spoilage of perishable products, and in peak periods of the retail trade.

There is no Federal law of general applicability limiting daily or weekly hours of work. However, the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act requires that most covered workers be paid one-and-a-half times the regular rate for hours worked beyond 40 a week.

[2] Excluded from this discussion are provisions relating to working hours in public works and in such industries as mining/smelting and intrastate transportation.

Challenges brought under title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act to State maximum hours laws applying to women only have established that these laws discriminated on the basis of sex, because they did not take into account individual capacities and preferences. As a result, all of these laws have undergone a change of status.[3]

The following States still have "on the books" a law regulating working hours of women only:

Arkansas	New Mexico	Pennsylvania
New Hampshire	Oklahoma	

All of these laws have been declared by State attorneys general and/or courts to be in conflict with and superseded by title VII. An Ohio provision was repealed effective July 21, 1982.

Two States—Texas and Utah—have laws providing that overtime for women must be on a voluntary basis. However, a Texas court has ruled that the State's provisions for voluntary overtime for only women are invalid.

The following States restrict work hours for both women and men:

Arizona	Georgia	Oregon
California	Maryland	Washington
Colorado	Montana	
Connecticut	New Mexico	

Most of the hours standards for both women and men have limited application. The Arizona provision covers work in laundries. The California Industrial Welfare Commission is authorized to adopt regulations governing maximum hours of work. California wage orders set maximum hours for workers handling perishable foods, and for covered motion picture workers and live-in domestic workers. The State's order for professional, technical and clerical workers makes work voluntary after 72 hours a week. Colorado limits working hours of persons who compound physicians' prescriptions or sell drugs and medicines at retail. Connecticut requires that work in excess of specified hours a day or a week be voluntary for persons 66 or older, disabled veterans, and handicapped workers (a physician's certificate also is required for the latter two categories).

The Georgia and Maryland restrictions apply to certain textile manufacturing jobs. The Montana Constitution declares 8 hours to be a day's work in all industries and employments, except farming and stock raising; hours standards have been established specifically for telephone operators and for work in retail stores, sugar refineries, restaurants, cement plants, quarries, hydroelectric dams, and public amusements. New Mexico prohibits requiring an employee other than a firefighter, a law enforcement officer, or a farm or ranch hand, whose duties require them to work longer hours, or employees primarily in a standby position, to work more than 16 hours a day except in emergency situations.

Oregon has a provision setting a limit of 10 hours a day for employment in mills, factories, or manufacturing establishments; 3 additional hours of employment a day are permitted at the rate of time-and-a-half the regular wage. Washington prohibits employing household workers for more than 60 hours a week.

Employment at Night

In 1960 a total of 22 jurisdictions regulated conditions under which women could be employed after specified evening hours, established maximum hour standards for nightwork by women that differed from the standards for daywork, or prohibited the employment of women at night.

Today only three States—New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island—have special provisions on the books that are related to night work by women. The Pennsylvania provision is part of a female labor law that is considered to be repealed by the State human relations law. In New Hampshire, which enforces statutory hours restrictions only upon request of affected females, the employment of women at nightwork for more than 8 hours in any 24 hours, or for more than 48 hours a week, is prohibited. Rhode Island has, but does not enforce, a regulation requiring women who are employed at night in the restaurant industry to be furnished transportation.

Most California wage orders, which apply to both women and men, require night shift workers to have access to facilities for obtaining hot food or drink or for heating food or drink. Under the California order for the motion picture industry, extras who have not been notified in advance may refuse nightwork and must be paid for all time consumed.

Employment Before and After Childbirth

In 1960, six States and Puerto Rico prohibited the employment of women in one or more industries or occupations immediately before and/or after childbirth. The standards were established by statute or by minimum wage and welfare orders. There is no comparable Federal statute (see the Pregnancy Discrimination Act section in chapter VI).

Sex discrimination guidelines issued under title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act provide that State laws restricting women's employment are in conflict with and are superseded by title VII. Even before the guidelines specifically mentioned restrictions with respect to pregnant or postpartum women, Vermont repealed its limitation. Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Missouri have followed suit. In Washington wage orders no longer have varying restrictions relating to the employment of pregnant women. A New York law prohibiting employment

[3] See *State Labor Laws in Transition: From Protection to Equal Status for Women*, 1976, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

for 4 weeks after childbirth has been amended to permit earlier return upon approval of a physician.

Puerto Rican law declares that a pregnant working woman is entitled to a rest period of 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after birth of a child (or, at her option and with a physician's approval, 1 week before and 7 weeks after birth), during which time she is to be paid half her usual wages. With a physician's approval, she can waive her entitlement after 2 weeks of postpartum rest. When the probable date of childbirth is mistakenly estimated and birth does not occur at the end of 4 weeks, the prenatal rest period at half pay is extended. A worker who suffers postpartum complications is entitled to up to 12 additional weeks of rest without additional pay.

Employment in Certain Occupations

In 1960, 26 States had laws or regulations that prohibited the employment of adult women in specified occupations or industries, or under certain working conditions considered hazardous or injurious to health and safety. The most common restrictions were in mining.

Sex discrimination guidelines issued under title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act provide that State laws or administrative regulations prohibiting or limiting the employment of women in certain occupations conflict with and are superseded by title VII. Accordingly, State limitations on the occupations of adult women have been nullified by court decisions, opinions of State attorneys general, or administrative rulings, and most of these limitations have been removed from the statute books.

In two States—Utah and Wyoming—the original constitutions (in 1896 and 1890, respectively) contained equal rights provisions but they also barred the employment of women in mines. Repeal of the Wyoming prohibition was approved by the voters in 1978, and repeal of the Utah prohibition was approved by the voters in 1980. However, Utah and Arkansas still have statutory restrictions on employing women in mines. Arkansas does not enforce its statutory provision. An Ohio restriction was repealed effective July 21, 1982.

Employment in Strenuous Jobs

In 1960, a dozen States had statutes, rules, regulations, or wage orders that specified the maximum weight which women employees were permitted to lift or carry. Wage orders in one of those States mentioned "excessive burdens;" other limitations were specific, and ranged from 15 to 35 pounds.

In 1968 the California limit on weightlifting by women was struck down as being in conflict with and superseded by title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act, *Rosenfeld v. Southern Pacific Co.*, 293 F. Supp. 1219. Accordingly, weightlifting restrictions for women only have been removed from the labor codes of all States. The Michigan penal code forbids giving a female any task disproportionate to her strength.[4] An Ohio restriction was repealed effective July 21, 1982.

The Oregon Wage and Hour Commission prohibits requiring *any* employee to lift "excessive weights." The Washington Industrial Welfare Committee has a standard for both women and men on lifting, carrying, pushing, or pulling of weights over 20 pounds. In Puerto Rico, the Secretary of Labor is authorized to establish weightlifting limits by regulation.

[4] On March 5, 1980, the Michigan Court of Appeals affirmed a lower court finding that reliance on this provision cannot be used as a defense to a charge that refusing to hire women in heavy lifting jobs constitutes illegal sex discrimination.

Table VII-2

Selected State laws affecting women in private industry, as of January 1, 1982[1]

State	Minimum wage	Premium pay for overtime[2]	Equal pay in minimum wage or separate law[3]	Sex discrimination in employment prohibited[3]	Age discrimination in employment prohibited[3]	Employment regulated or prohibited							
						Meal period	Rest period	Seats required	Total hours[4]	At night	Before and after childbirth	In mines	In jobs lifting heavy weights
Alabama								W					
Alaska	X	8/40X		X	X								
Arizona			X	X	X				X[5]				
Arkansas	X	40-48X	X			(W)	(W)	W	(W)			W[6]	
California	X	8/40X[7]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X[5]	X[5]			
Colorado	X	40X	X	X	X	X	X		X[10]				
Connecticut	X	40X	X	X	X				X[11]				
Delaware	X			X	X								

Table VII-2—Continued

Selected State laws affecting women in private industry, as of January 1, 1982[1]

State	Minimum wage	Premium pay for overtime[2]	Equal pay in minimum wage or separate law[3]	Sex discrimination in employment prohibited[3]	Age discrimination in employment prohibited[3]	Employment regulated or prohibited						
						Meal period	Rest period	Seats required	Total hours[4]	At night	Before and after childbirth	In mines	In jobs lifting heavy weights
District of Columbia	X	40X		X	X			X					
Florida			X	X	X			X					
Georgia	X		X		X			W	X[12]				
Hawaii	X	40X	X	X	X								
Idaho	X		X	X	X			W					
Illinois	X	40/46X	X	X	X	X							
Indiana	X		X	X	X								
Iowa				X	X								
Kansas	X	46X	X	X									
Kentucky	X	40X	X	X	X	X	X						
Louisiana					X[13]								
Maine	X	40X	X	X	X								
Maryland	X	40-48X	X	X	X				X[12]				
Massachusetts	X	40X	X	X	X	X		X					
Michigan	X	40X	X	X	X								[14]
Minnesota	X	48X	X	X	X								
Mississippi													
Missouri			X	X				W[15]					
Montana	X	40X	X	X	X			X	X[16]				
Nebraska	X		X	X	X	X							
Nevada	X	8/40X[17]	X	X	X	X	X						
New Hampshire	X	40X	X	X	X	X		W	(W)[18]	(W)[18]			
New Jersey	X	40X	X	X	X			X					
New Mexico	X	48X[19]		X	X	W		W	(W) X[20]				
New York	X	40-44X	X	X	X	X		W			W		
North Carolina	X	45X		[21]	[21]								
North Dakota	X	40X	X	X	X	X							
Ohio	X	40X	X	X	X	[22]		[22]	[22]	[22]		[22]	[22]
Oklahoma	X		X	X				W	(W)				
Oregon	X	40X[23]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X[23]				X
Pennsylvania	X	40X	X	X	X	W[24]	W[24]	W[24]	(W)[24]	W[24]			
Puerto Rico	X	8/40X		X	X	X					W		X
Rhode Island	X	40X	X	X	X	X				W[25]			
South Carolina				X	X								
South Dakota	X		X	X									
Tennessee			X	X	X								
Texas	X	(9W)[26]						(W)	(W)[27]				
Utah	W			X	X	W	W	X	W[27]			W[28]	
Vermont	X	40X		X	X								
Virginia	X		X										
Washington	X	40X	X	X	X	X	X		X[29]				X
West Virginia	X	40X	X	X	X			W					
Wisconsin	X	40-42X		X	X			X					
Wyoming	X	8/48W	X			W[30]	W	W					
United States	X	40X	X	X	X								

W—indicates that the law applies to women only.
X—indicates that the law applies to both women and men.
Parentheses—indicate that courts, opinions by State attorneys general, or administrative rules have held these laws to be in conflict with title VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act, and the laws are thus not enforced unless otherwise indicated.

[1] These laws vary greatly in occupations and industries to which they apply and in the extent to which enforcement machinery is provided. While minimum wage and antidiscrimination laws in most States have broad coverage, other laws often apply to specified occupations or industries. Details of coverage not shown are available from State agencies.
[2] Some variations for single industries or seasonal employment are not shown.
[3] The equal pay column lists only separate equal pay provisions, not equal pay requirements contained in a broader civil rights law. The sex discrimination column lists States having a broad civil rights law which includes sex as one of the prohibited bases of discrimination in employment. The age discrimination column lists any State which prohibits age discrimination either in a separate law or as part of a broader civil rights law.
[4] Does not include restrictions on working hours in public works and in such industries as mining, smelting, and intrastate transportation.
[5] Covers work in laundries.
[6] Not enforced.
[7] Daily overtime also payable after 10 hours if regular schedule of not more than 4 days of not more than 10 hours each has been voluntarily agreed upon by the employer and at least two-thirds of the employees, within limitations set by wage orders.
[8] Wage orders for canning, freezing, and preserving industry; industries handling products after harvest; and industries preparing agricultural products for market, on the farm, set maximum of 72 hours in 7 consecutive days after which an employee must have a 24-hour period off duty. Wage orders for professional, technical, clerical, mechanical, and similar occupations prohibit terminating or otherwise disciplining an employee for refusing to work more than 72 hours a week, except in an emergency. Wage order for motion picture industry sets maximum of 16 hours a day, including meal periods. Household occupations order sets maximum of 12 hours per day for live-in workers except under enumerated conditions, and requires a 24-hour day off after 5 workdays per week except in a defined emergency.
[9] If a meal period occurs on a shift beginning or ending at or between the hours of 10 p.m. and 6 a.m., facilities for obtaining hot food or drink and a suitable sheltered place for consumption are required. A wage order for the motion picture industry requires that hot food and drink be provided for employees required to work after midnight and transportation home for employees required to work at night when public transportation is not available.
[10] Covers person who compounds physicians' prescriptions or sells drugs and medicines at retail.
[11] Voluntary overtime for persons over age 66 and those medically certified as handicapped or as disabled veterans.
[12] Covers certain textile manufacturing.
[13] Covers employers of 20 or more persons but excludes State and local government, as well as persons subject to Federal law (in effect, leaves no State coverage).
[14] Penal code prohibits giving a female a task disproportionate to her strength.
[15] The State attorney general has ruled that an employer must provide seats for men as well as women, or after proving that business necessity precludes providing such facilities, the employer may not provide seats for any employee.
[16] Varying standards (some depending upon population of locality) for telephone operators and work in retail stores, sugar refineries, restaurants, cement plants, quarries, hydroelectric dams, and public amusements.
[17] Daily standard does not apply if, by mutual agreement, the employee works a scheduled 10-hour day, 4-day workweek.
[18] Enforced only upon request of female employees who do not wish to work in excess of maximum hours or at night.
[19] Waiver of premium pay up to 54 hours a week permitted by written agreement between employer and employee.
[20] Provision, which applies to both women and men, prohibits requiring employees other than firefighters, law enforcement officers, or farm or ranch hands whose duties require them to work longer hours, or employees primarily in a standby position, to work more than 16 hours a day except in emergency situations.
[21] A 1977 law declares it is public policy to protect the right of persons to seek and hold employment without discrimination based on race, religion, color, national origin, age, sex, or handicap, but empowers Human Relations Council only to use its good offices to effect amicable resolution of discrimination charges.
[22] Ohio repealed its protective labor laws for women effective July 21, 1982.
[23] Provision (not a part of minimum wage law) sets a limit of 10 hours a day for employment in mills, factories, or manufacturing establishments, except that up to 3 additional hours of employment in a day are permitted at the rate of time-and-a-half of the regular wage.
[24] Not enforced, in accordance with opinion of State attorney general that enactment of State Human Relations Act implied repeal of the earlier 1913 Women's Labor Law.
[25] Transportation must be provided by the employer for employees going off duty between 11 p.m. and 6 a.m. unless the employee has her own means of transportation.
[26] Ruled invalid by State attorney general and an appeals court, i.e., no longer in effect.
[27] Overtime for women must be voluntary.
[28] It is unlawful under Utah law to employ any woman in any work in mines if the industrial commission finds such employment detrimental to her health and safety, but in actuality no differentiation is made between safety conditions for women and men.
[29] Covers household workers.
[30] Required, by implication, by provision for a rest period before and after the lunch hour for women who are required to be on their feet continuously during employment.

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AN ACT TO ESTABLISH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR A BUREAU TO BE KNOWN AS

THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Women's Bureau.

SEC. 2. That the said bureau shall be in charge of a director, a woman, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive an annual compensation of $5,000.[1] It shall be the duty of said bureau to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The said bureau shall have authority to investigate and report to the said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry. The director of said bureau may from time to time publish the results of these investigations in such a manner and to such extent as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

SEC. 3. That there shall be in said bureau an assistant director, to be appointed by the Secretary of Labor, who shall receive an annual compensation of $3,500 [1] and shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the director and approved by the Secretary of Labor.

SEC. 4. That there is hereby authorized to be employed by said bureau a chief clerk and such special agents, assistants, clerks, and other employees at such rates of compensation and in such numbers as Congress may from time to time provide by appropriations.

SEC. 5. That the Secretary of Labor is hereby directed to furnish sufficient quarters, office furniture, and equipment for the work of this bureau.

SEC. 6. That this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved June 5, 1920.

Public Law No. 259, 66th Congress (H.R. 13229).

[1] Amount increased by Reclassification Act of March 4, 1923, as amended and supplemented.

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